English version

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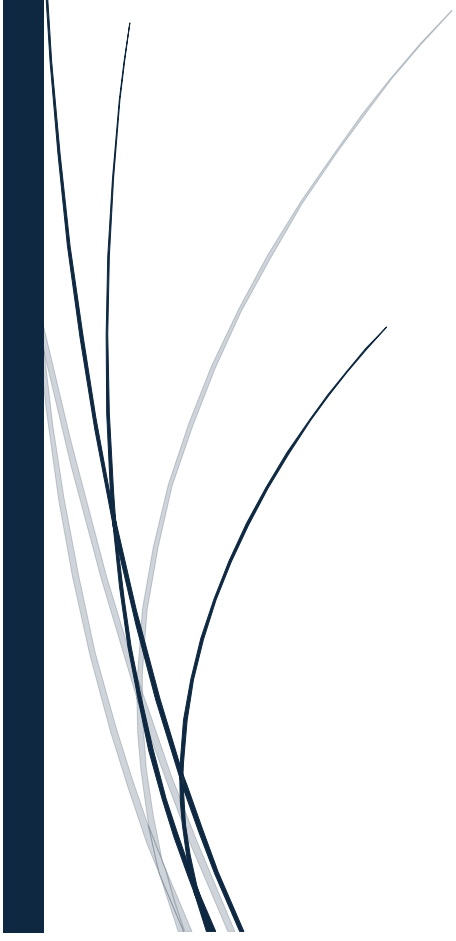
Kaël

Condensed abbreviational language



Veknem

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A human must eat, drink and clothe himself; the rest is insanity.

Człowiek musi jeść, pić i ubierać się; reszta jest szaleństwem.

Eз ẽe, ĩḗ rǔs gh; Ǹã Q̰aʄ-ỉ.

S. Lem, *Powrót do gwiazd (Return from the Stars)*

When you just lie for hours at night, your thoughts can go very far and into very strange directions, you know...

Jak się tak leży godzinami w nocy, to myśleniem można zajść bardzo daleko i w bardzo dziwne strony, wiesz...

Ål iđ xl̨ Urȉl̨i̯xp, Aveu̯ å̰ зô-zl̨ i å̰ fû Gûlȉb, ud…

S. Lem, *Solaris*

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What is Kaël?

Kaël [ˈkaɛl] is an artificial language created so that all texts written in it are as concise as possible, i.e. take up as little space as possible. When using various languages, such as English, Esperanto, Hungarian, or my native Polish, I was put off by the fact that there are many long words in these languages, which made it difficult for me, for example, to quickly write down any informations. Playing with various abbreviations or even using stenographic writing was never a good idea because of the difficulties with later reading the text. Hence, being inspired by the circumstances of introducing the signs &, =, etc. and the fact that artificial languages exist at all, I decided to try to create a language in which the written text would be as concise as possible, i.e. take up as little space as possible on paper/screen - without modifying the font type or size, while maintaining a similar precision of expression to that in natural languages. The purpose of creating this language is therefore quite similar to the purpose for which Ithkuil was created, but with the diametric difference that Ithkuil was created mainly to create complex, philosophical texts, while Kaël was created with the idea of being able to express not only complex, but above all simple statements, so that anyone interested could learn it.

This is the reason why I developed a grammar, especially the conjugation of verbs or the creation of participles, adjectives and adverbs, similar to the Esperanto language – a conlang famous for its simplicity, which was the primary goal of creating this language. It is a perfect language in terms of the lack of any irregularities, but my priority is that no word in this language is longer than a word (any) that already exists in any natural language. I do not know how does the issue of regularity look like in the case of Ithkuil, but I know that due to the intricate grammar and the huge number of word-formation affixes (reaching several hundred, if not thousands), this language is so complicated that only a very small number of people use it.[1]

The author of Ithkuil decided to achieve brevity through (probably) convoluted grammar, but I chose a completely different approach – namely: creating extremely short words that (in their noninflected form) consist of at most four (usually three or even two!) letters. The most important thing is that no word in Kaël is longer than its equivalent in any language (especially one using the Latin alphabet[2]).

Knowing, for example, that the word „now" in Dutch consists of only two letters (nu), the translation of this word into this conlang should not be longer than 2 letters. For this reason, unfortunately, irregularities can be encountered, especially in the conjugation of verbs or the formation of participles. It is difficult to create a regular conjugation of the verb „to see" knowing that in the 1st person singular of past tense (*Pretérito Perfeito Simples)* in Portuguese this verb is declined as „vi" (= I saw), while in French the past participle of the same verb is also two letters: „vu" (= seen). However, I ignore the verb forms present in natural languages that are identical for different persons (e.g. in Brazilian Portuguese there is a verb „ir", which in the *Imperteito do indicativo* tense has the form „ia" for each person singular - but I prefer to avoid such ambiguities).

When it comes to ambiguity of words, I try to avoid it (although of course, having a lexicon of thousands of words, there will certainly be some accidental ambiguity), but I allow for situations

[1] If we are to believe the information contained in the English Wikipedia, the Ithuil language is not spoken by anyone at all – not even the author. Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ithkuil (access: 03.11.2024)

[2] I do not intend to compare Kaël's brevity to that of languages that use picture-based scripts, such as Chinese or Japanese. What good is it that there are thousands of two-letter or even single-letter words in those languages, when their writing systems consist of countless thousands of letters!!!

where one word will have several meanings, but very similar ones. For example, the word „Šũ" can mean both: „garbage", „feces" (and therefore it can also be translated as an obvious vulgarism), as well as „politician". In my opinion, these 3 words are so close to each other that there is absolutely no reason to separate them.

Given the basic purpose of this language, the phonology is very difficult, but it cannot be avoided[3]. So, to make it as easy as possible for potential future users to learn, I have tried to make the basic words as easy to pronounce as possible. Only in the case of more sophisticated words will it be necessary to make an effort to pronounce the word.

WARNING: Since I have received information from various people that this grammar description is very complicated, I have the following advice for people interested in learning this conlang: I suggest reading at least the description of the alphabet (chapter 1) - to familiarize yourself with the rules of pronunciation, then review chapter 3 on declension, look at chapter 7 (verbs) - to familiarize yourself with at least the „summary table" - there is the conjugation of verbs of all groups (they differ from each other in the ending of the infinitive) in all tenses. Then I recommend following the instructions in chapter 11.

I am perfectly aware that the purpose for which Kaël was created will never be achieved 100 percent. As I wrote in the chapter on irregular verbs, this is because there can always be a word/phrase in some natural language that will take up fewer characters than its equivalent in Kael. That is why I am all the more open to contact with people who would indicate words that should be shortened even more, considering the basic purpose of this conlang. I am also aware that it is very original (apart from Ithkuil, I have not heard of any conlang that was created for a similar purpose to Kaël), so I am not expecting a huge number of people interested in this conlang, unlike the authors of the Interslavic language or Esperanto.

List of abbreviations

sing.	singular
du.	dual
pl.	plural
mu.	multiple
1s.	first person singular
2s.	second person singular
3s.	third person singular
1pl.	first person plural
2pl.	second person plural
3pl.	third person plural
EN	English
EO	Esperanto
PL	Polish
PT	Portuguese

In addition, I list two ways to help record the pronunciation. I use [square] brackets when citing the pronunciation according to the IPA notation. I described the use of {curly} brackets at the very end of Chapter 1, in the last paragraph of the section „Self-appearing vowels" (pages 13 and 14), because it is necessary to know the rules of pronunciation so that the description of their use is understandable to the reader.

[3] Despite this, I still find the phonology of this conlang easier than the English phonology, if only because of the lack of the ð sound in Kaël, which in my opinion is too similar to "v" or "f". Honestly, **I could use all characters established by the IPA in this conlang** to achieve its basic idea as easily as possible, but I'm not sure if there would be at least one single person in the world who could read texts in this language. So I refrained from such a rich phonology because I would like oral communication in this language to be realistic as well.

1. Alphabet and phonology

In order to make Kaël's basic assumption of short words more realistic, I found it necessary to create a very extensive alphabet, which currently has 211 letters. In this chapter, I have presented their lists in the form of tables, dividing them into individual groups. To the right of each letter, I have placed its phonetic notation. However, I realize that not everyone knows the letters that make up the IPA[4], so I will discuss the rules for pronunciation of each of these letter groups. If the description is too complicated, I invite you to the website: en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Help:IPA – you can listen to any phonetic letter there. Unfortunately, since I do not have a linguistic education, I am aware that the phonetic notation may not fully reflect the ways in which a given letter can be pronounced. Therefore, please consider the description of the pronunciation in the tables to be more binding than the phonetic notation. Note: if there is more than one letter in a given cell, it only means that there are several ways to write a given letter. For example, instead of ì you can write ị or i̯.

Vowels

Due to their huge number, I decided to divide vowels into: basic, elongated, nasal, tonal and combined with another letter. In the tables below, I have presented their notation both official (marked in a color) and phonetic.

basic		elongated		nasal		tonal	
a	a	ā	aː	ã	ã	ǎ	aⱯ
e	ɛ	ē	ɛː	ẽ	ɛ̃	ě	ɛⱯ
i	i/j	ī	ji	ĩ	ĩ	ǐ	iⱯ
o	ɔ/o	ō	ɔː	õ	ɔ̃	ǒ	ɔⱯ
u	u	ū	wu	ũ	ũ	ǔ	uⱯ
ì ị i̯	ɨ/ə			ĩ̀ ị̃ ĩ̯	ɨ̃		
y	y	ȳ	yː				
å	ɒ						
é	eː						
i̊	ju						

Basic vowels

They are the easiest group to discuss, because the first five (a, e, i, o, u) are pronounced exactly the same as in many other languages.

- ì – this is nothing more than the Polish „y", or the Hungarian/German „ö", however, for aesthetic reasons I recommend pronouncing this letter short. I was inspired here by the Chinese pinyin notation, since I noticed that the letter ì (e.g. in the word shì) sounds very similar to the Polish „y". As you can see in the table, this letter can be written in 3 different ways. I was going to allow this letter to be read as [ə], but I realized that this sound is too similar to [ɛ].
- y – it is the same as the French „u" or the Hungarian/German „ü". Extremely rarely used.
- å – it is an intermediate sound between „a" and „o". In simpler terms, you should pronounce [a] with your lips positioned as if you wanted to pronounce [ɔ] (or vice versa: pronounce [ɔ] with your lips positioned as if you wanted to pronounce [a] – the phonetic effect should be identical).
- é - it looks scary, but it is simply the equivalent of the Hungarian „é".
- i̊ - it is a combination of the letters iu, where the letter „i" is read like the English „y". Therefore, this letter should be pronounced like the English „yu".

Elongated vowels

In Kaël, as in English, Dutch, or Hungarian, there is a vowel length. This phonetic phenomenon consists of dividing vowels into short ones (called basic for the purposes of this language) and

[4] International Phnetic Alphabet.

elongated ones, which are simply pronounced a bit longer. I know that such pronunciation can be difficult for speakers of languages that do not have quantal tense, which is why I allow ī to be pronounced like „yi" in „Yiddish" and ū like „woo".

Nasal vowels

Theoretically, these include the Polish sounds ą and ę, but as a Polish native speaker I have noticed that these sounds are increasingly rarely pronounced nasally, and are more like [ɔw] and [ɛw] (which, by the way, explains why the ending of the singular instrumental case of feminine nouns is increasingly often misspelled as „-om" instead of „-ą"). Nasal vowels should be pronounced with the palate lowered, so that some air escapes through the nose when the sound is produced by the mouth – that is why the sounds are called nasal. For example, I recommend pronouncing the letter ã as in Portuguese: são, João, irmão.

Tonal vowels

These are definitely the most difficult sounds in this conlang, which is why they are not found in basic words, but only in more sophisticated ones. I borrowed these sounds from Chinese – they are the equivalent of Mandarin vowels with a falling-rising tone. When pronouncing a vowel, you should first lower your voice, and then immediately raise it. Someone familiar with correct phonetic notation will have noticed that in the above table I have written these tones differently than they are actually pronounced in Chinese – this is only because I expect the person reading these letters to be extremely careful in pronunciation, so that it is easier for a European to distinguish a tonal vowel from a basic one. Tones are not used in European languages, which is why I advise against rushing when pronouncing this type of vowel.

It is also worth mentioning that in the future I plan to add a division into several tones. Currently, there is only one, which I will probably call the falling-rising tone. I am considering adding a rising tone and a glottalized rising tone, similar to the one written in Vietnamese with the tilde sign. For a person who is new to learning this conlang, this change should be imperceptible, because, as I have clearly stated in the introduction, I want the basic words to be as easy to pronounce as possible, so they will definitely not contain tonal vowels.

Vowels combined with another letter

To create this group of letters, I was inspired (apart from Kashubian orthography) by the East Slavic Cyrillic alphabet, or more precisely – the existence of the letters: я, є, ї, ё, ю – they are distinguished by the fact that each of these characters conveys two sounds at the same time (e.g. я is pronounced like the „ya", є like „ye", etc.). It should be noted, however, that both of these sounds are always found in the same syllable. However, I went a step further and allowed one character to not only represent two sounds, but also to have these sounds in two separate syllables. The full list of these vowels is presented in the table below:

	a		e		i		o		u		ì		ȉ		h-		-h		n	
a	â	aa	ǎ	aɛ	á	aj	â	aɔ	ą	au̯	à	aɨ̌/aø̌	ȁ	ajɨ̌/ajø̌	a̍	ha	ả	ah	a̰	an
e	ê	aɛ	ě	ɛɛ	é	ɛj	ê	ɛɔ	ę	ɛu̯	è	ɛɨ̌/ɛø̌	ȅ	ɛjɨ̌/ɛjø̌	e̍	hɛ	ẻ	ɛh	ḛ	ɛn
i	î	ia/ja	ǐ	iɛ/jɛ	í	ij/ii	î	iɔ/jɔ	į	iu̯	ȉ	jɨ̌/jø̌			i̍	hi	ỉ	ih	ḭ	in
o	ô	ɔa	ǒ	ɔɛ	ó	ɔj	ô	ɔɔ/oo	ǫ	ɔu̯	ò	ɔɨ̌/ɔø̌	ȍ	ɔjɨ̌/ɔjø̌	o̍	hɔ	ỏ	ɔh	o̰	ɔn
u	û	ua/wa	ǔ	uɛ/wɛ	ú	uj	û	uɔ/wɔ	ų	uu̯	ù	wɨ̌/wø̌	ȕ	ujɨ̌/ujø̌	u̍	hu	ủ	uh	ṵ	un

ì					ị́ ĩ̥	ɨ̌j/ø̌j									ị̀ ĩ̥̀	hɨ̌/hø̌	ị̉ ĩ̥	ɨ̌h/ø̌h		
y	ŷ	ya	y̌	yɛ			ŷ	yɔ	y̨	yu					ỳ	hy	ỷ	yh	y̰	yn
å					ǻ	ɒj					ą	ɒɨ̌/ɒø̌	ā	ajɨ̌/ajø̌						

To the right of each letter, in smaller font, I have provided the pronunciation of the given letter. I have constructed the table in such a way that you can correctly read the pronunciation of a given vowel, also by: first reading the bold vowel to the left of the letter we are „interested in", and then the one above it. For example, ǒ is read as oe, ê as eo, ê as ea, ǎ as ae, ô as oo, but NOTE: this is not an elongated „o" (it is not like in Dutch „zoon") – ô is simply pronounced as two o's, one after the other (similarly the „oo" in English „zoology")[5]. The exceptions are the letters marked in green – here, you pronounce „h" first, and then the appropriate vowel. You should also pay special attention to the letters „i" and „u" – these are letters that, when „nearby" other letters, can be read as English consonants „y" and „w".

I know that for this reason I have made it much easier to write concisely, but I do not see anything extraordinary in this, since, for example, the Kashubian letters: ò, ù are read like as [wɛ], [wɨ], i.e. like Kaëlish ǔ and ù. Similarly, in Semitic languages (Hebrew, Arabic), Thai or Hindi, most vowels are written by diacritics. The slight difference is that in the above languages these „vowel diacritics" are added to consonants, and not mainly to vowels, as here.

Interesting fact: when testing the language, I noticed that when I pronounce vowels *combined with ì*, they sound as if I pronounced them with a falling tone. However, I need to consult a Chinese / Vietnamese native speaker to assess the truth of this statement.

And now a little about diacritical marks

As you can see, Kaël is full of various diacritical marks (i.e. dashes above and below letters, and less often dots). Therefore, before we go any further, it is worth learning their names. It will certainly make it easier to describe the language, not to mention spelling words. The table below presents all these marks, placed next to the letter „a":

Sign	Name
ā	macron
ã	tilde
ă	breve
â	inverted breve
ǎ	caron
á	acute accent
â	circumnflex accent
ą	ogonek
à	grave accent
å	ring above
ȁ	double grave accent
ȧ	reversed comma above
ả	hook above
a̰	tilde below

[5] I know that this may cause a problem in pronunciation, so in such cases I allow the pronunciation of the second vowel with a downward accent.

a̯	inverted breve below
a̬	caron below
a̋	double acute accent
a̩	acute accent below
a᷄	circumnflex accent below
ȧ	dot above
ä	diaeresis
a̧	cédille
a̓	vertical line above

The „vertical line above” is also worth noting here. Letters with this sign are not included in the alphabet, because they are used to write proper names in text that do not yet have their equivalent in Kaël (e.g. names, geographical names). This sign is placed above vowels, which are stressed in the language from which the word comes. However, if I decide to increase the number of possible tones, it is very possible that it will be used to record one of the tones.

Connecting vowels

This is how I called the group of letters that abbreviate the vowels of two adjacent words (they can belong to any part of speech), where the first of them ends with a basic vowel and the second begins with it.

	a	**e**	**i**	**o**	**u**	**ì**
a	a̯	a̬	a̋	a̩	a̧	ä
e	e̯	e̬	e̋	e̩	ȩ	ë[6]
i	i̯	i̬	i̋	i̩	i̧	ï
o	o̯	o̬	ő	o̩	o̧	ö
u	u̯	u̬	ű	u̩	u̧	ü
ì	ì̯	ì̬	ì̋	ì̩	ì̧	ï ì̬

If, for example, the first word ends with „a” and the second begins with „i”, instead of these two letters and the space between them, a̋ is written. Absolutely nothing changes in pronunciation then - only the way of writing changes. The reason for introducing these letters is, of course, the basic purpose of this language - the brevity of the text.

Consonants

This group of letters is also extremely large, grouped similarly to vowels. We distinguish basic vowels and those combined with another letter.

		Combined with another letter							
basic		**-i**		**double**		**-h**		**-ŝ/-j**	
b	b	b́	bi	b̄	ʔb			ḅ	bẓ
c	t͡s	c̀	t͡si	c̄	ʔt͡s	ċ	t͡sh		
ć	t͡ɕ	ç	t͡ɕi						
ĉ	t͡ʂ	č	t͡ʃ/t͡ʂi	c̄̆	ʔt͡ʂ	c̆	t͡ʂh		
d	d	d́	di	d̄	ʔd			ḍ	dẓ
đ	ɟ								
f	f	f́	fi	f̄	fː	ḟ	fh	f̣	fʂ
g	g	ǵ	gi	ḡ	ʔg			g̣ g̈	gẓ
ĝ	d͡z	ğ	d͡zi	ḡ̆	ʔd͡z			ĝ g̈̆	d͡zz
h	h			h̄	hh	ĥ	χ	ḥ	hʂ
j	ʐ	j́	ʒi / ʐi	j̄	ʐː				
k	k	ḱ	ki	k̄	ʔk	k̇	kh	ḳ x̂	kʂ
l	l	l̀	li	l̄	lː	l̇	lh	ḷ	lʂ
		ĺ l′	ʎ / lʲi						
ɜ	m	ɜ́	mi	ɜ̄	mː	ɜ̇	mh	ɜ̣	mʂ
n	n	ǹ	ni	n̄	mː	ṅ	nh	ṇ	nʂ

[6] Note: in Germanic and Romance languages, the name of the language must have a diaeresis above the letter e only to show that the letters a and e are read as separate sounds, not as one (the same rule occurs in French, Dutch and Latin). So it has nothing to do with how the letter ë is read in Kaël.

ń	ɲ	ñ	ɲi						
p	p	ṕ	pi	p̄	ʔp	ṗ	ph	p p̈	pʂ
q	kf	q́	kfi	q̄	kfː	q̇	kfh		
r	ɾ	ŕ	ɾi	r̄	ʔr	ṙ	ɾh		
s	s	ś	si	s̄	sː	ṡ	sh		
ś	ɕ	ʂ	ɕi						
ŝ	ʂ	š	ʂi	ŝ̄	ʂː	ṡ̌	ʂh		
t	t	ṭ ṫ	ti	t̄	ʔt	ṫ	th	ţ	tʂ
ť ́t	c	ţ	ci						
v	v	v́	vi	v̄	ʔv			ẏ	vʐ
x	ks	ẋ	ksi	x̄	ksks	ẋ	ksh	ẋ̨	ksʂ
x́	kɕ	x̧	kɕi						
z	z	ż ẓ	zi	z̄	zː			ẓ	zʐ
ź	ʑ	ʐ ẓ̧	ʑi						

Basic consonants

I think they don't require any special attention due to the simplicity of the phonetic signs. Ĝ, ĉ, and ŝ are read like the English j (in „jelly"), ch (in „change") and sh. J is read exactly as in French or Portuguese, while ɜ conveys the sound of [m]. I have introduced this letter only because „m" is a wide letter (like the non-existent „w" in Kaël). I chose this letter because it resembles a turned lowercase „м" (not only the number 3).

Consonants combined with -i

I think that the description itself, as well as the phonetic notation, is clear enough that this group of consonants does not require any special discussion. It is only worth noting that if a given word ends with a consonant from this group and we know that it is a plural noun, we can read [ɔr] instead of [i]. Therefore, if the word ends in -or, this is the only case when „o" must be pronounced as [o] and not [ɔ].

Another thing that cannot be ignored is the issue of pronunciation and spelling of the sound „i" before basic vowels, which is preceded by a basic consonant. In most words, there is latitude here, for example, you can write and pronounce the word ṕa [pia] and pî [pja], meaning „small" interchangeably. The matter begins to get complicated if we have a word (in its uninflected form) ending with the letter -e preceded by a consonant *combined with -i* - then this „i" cannot be read together with „e" as [je], but must be read separately, i.e. [ie]. If we have a word ending in -ǐ - it can only be read as [je]. This is important because thanks to this distinction, I greatly increase the number of potential words I can create. For example, the verb „to happen" already has a standardized spelling rǐ (whereas ŕe is a completely different word), while ikǐ may be a completely different verb, from iḱe – an already existing form of the verb ǐ (to be). In addition, we should be wary of the so-called *verb duality* - described in more detail in the subsection on verb conjugation, because without knowledge of how some verbs are conjugated, it is easy to make a mistake in their pronunciation.

Double consonants

They are read as if two consonants were next to each other. For example, l̄ is read as „ll" in English „allel", d̄ as „dd" in English „addiction", n̄ as „nn" in English „anniversary" etc.

Consonants combined with -h and other consonants

ḍ	dz
ǧ	gz
x̌	kʂi
ł	wi/ɬi
ŋ	mn
ň	nk
ɲ	nm
ƥ	ps

r̂	ɾs
ŝ̨	ʂs

Consonants can also be combined with other letters. Most often, it is the letter h, ŝ/j (see the table above), less often s/z, ɜ and n (see the table next to it). It is worth stopping for a moment at the letter „h", because here we can distinguish both the basic form and the double form and the one combined with h - what is it about? It is simply that Kaël, like Dutch or Armenian, distinguishes between strong and weak „h". The letter ĥ is used to write a strong „h" (like the Armenian ɦu), „h" - to write a delicate „h", and h̄ is simply a double delicate „h". I would like to emphasize that the difference between a strong and a weak „h" should be very strong - not like in Ukrainian, where theoretically these sounds are distinguished, but for me, as a Pole, this difference is inaudible.

And one more interesting fact at the end: for aesthetic reasons, you can put a hook instead of a dot above consonants. Similarly, you can use a breve instead of a caron and an inverted breve instead of a circumflex.

There are a lot of these letters – how to type them???

At first I thought that writing in this language electronically would be very difficult and inconvenient – there is no language that has a keyboard offering such a wide range of letters as Kaël, which is why I assumed that this language would only be possible to use orally and on paper. Fortunately, I managed to find the website: lexilogos.com/keyboard/diacritics.htm – its discovery completely revolutionized the way I look at this conlang! You can insert any diacritics for any letter there, which is necessary to write in this language electronically! Currently, the only problem is individual letters, which cannot be written on this website. These are the letters that I have placed on a purple background in the tables. I deal with this fact by simply inserting punctuation marks into them on lexilogos that do not exist in the official Kaël script, e.g. various modifications of the comma that are available there.

Diacritical compounds

These are simply combinations of letters and diacritics other than those we see in the letters officially used in Kaël. Such writing would also only be possible to write on paper, if not for the website mentioned above. This mainly concerns vowels, because adding a circumflex to vowels and consonants causes a completely different modification of the way a given letter is read (e.g. ê and ĉ). Looking at the table with „vowels combined with another letter", you have certainly noticed that adding each of these characters adds a new, specific sound to a given vowel. For example, an acute accent adds the sound „i", a grave adds the sound „ì", a hook adds the sound „h" after the vowel/consonant (and an inverted comma - before the vowel), a caron adds the sound „e", etc. That is why I allow you to improvise by adding these diacritics to other letters, as in the case of the following words:

Official text	**Text with diacritical compound**	**Meaning**
ån	å̰	very
iẻ	ĭ̀	he/she/it isn't
Kòń-eỉ	Kòń-ḗ	it's a book
ỉh	ỉ̊	let it be
ȯe	ȯ̀	to take care
iþhlu/iþiþ	Iþ́lu/iþ̇lu/iþ́þ	55

When using this notation, remember the order in which the diacritics should be read: first, read those corresponding to elongated, nasal, and tonal vowels (if they are right on the basic vowel). The rest are read from bottom to top, so if there is a ogonek, read it first, then the remaining diacritics. The exception is the bottom tilde, because I have noticed that it is most convenient to read it at the end.

As you can see, these letters are not always displayed correctly. The ideal situation is in the case of compounds where there is at most one diacritic at the

top and bottom, but the rest may not be displayed correctly. I regret a bit that in the letter „o̬" in the table, the caron is slightly hidden, which makes it resemble a macron or a breve. I also wanted to show in the table the character „Ĩ̃", which is a diacritic compound of „Iõ" (nose), but when editing this text, the tilde above „Î" does not appear (but fortunately it displays correctly in the pdf format). Nevertheless, I consider the presence of this group of letters to be a very interesting variant of writing in this language.

And now something about computer recording

I know perfectly well that in communication, constantly using this (or any other) website on mobile devices can be inconvenient, due to the constant need to exit the messenger to open the website, type something, and only then copy from there - that is why there is a way of writing, which I call „computer recording". It works on the same principle as the „x" system or the „h" system in Esperanto. The first of them is that if the user cannot write ĉ, ĝ, ĥ, ĵ, ŝ, ŭ, they can write cx, gx, hx, jx, etc. instead (in the second, similarly, h is inserted instead of x). Here, you have to use various letters with punctuation marks, which are generally not used anyway, e.g. i| is ī, o^ is õ, ao is â, l* is ĺ, li is ľ, s' is ŝ, and c'i is č, l^ is ł, etc. I won't discuss this in detail, because it depends more on the users how to use this notation. And secondly: using this notation completely contradicts the idea of this language, which is why I advise using it only as a last resort. After all, it is known that a person with a Spanish keyboard does not have to write n*i, ai, oi, since they can write the letters ñ, á, ó anyway. When I write a text in Kaël on my phone (because on a computer you can easily have both pages in two windows next to each other) and I don't feel like going to lexilogos, I almost constantly switch between the Polish keyboard (supposedly in international mode, but I still miss many characters), the old Slavic „Словѣньскъ" (which also allows me to insert the letter з), and the IPA qwerty keyboard, Chinese (pinyin) and Vietnamese - just to have the text written correctly with the appropriate diacritics. And I still miss many letters - then I have no choice but to improvise - for example, I write the letter „ɾ" as „r" with any diacritic below it. In this case, there is only one diacritic that can be placed below the letter „r", so there is no chance that I will mistake such an improvised record for anything.

Separating words in pronunciation

When listening to any text in natural languages that you don't know, you may have a problem with many words in a sentence sounding like one word. In this conlang, I decided to solve this problem (and at the same time make it easier to listen to – even for people who don't know the language at all) by introducing one, specific rule regarding where to put the stress in words – it must be in the first syllable of each word. However, since there are a lot of monosyllabic words in Kaël, I introduced 2 exceptions to simplify pronunciation:

- If a word begins with a vowel, its pronunciation should be preceded by a glottal stop, i.e. [ʔ] (especially if the previous word ends with a consonant). Then it is not necessary to pronounce the accent.
- In the case of short statements consisting of 2 words, it is enough to put the accent on the second word – on the first syllable. It may sound like one word, but with the accent falling on the middle or final syllable. Then we will know that our statement actually consists of 2 words, not one.

These 2 rules above can greatly simplify pronunciation and listening comprehension in the case of an utterance consisting of, for example, 3 words, where the second one starts with a consonant and the third one – with a vowel.

Allophones

I initially named this section "Auxiliary phonetic variants" because when assigning phonetic spelling to specific letters in Kaël, I noticed that there are many phonetic letters that I find hard to distinguish (most likely because I do not consider myself a polyglot, nor do I have a linguistic education), or they are simply highly similar to each other. That is why I decided to include information about which sounds (in my opinion) are similar enough to be used interchangeably:

- instead of [a] you can read [ä] or [ɐ]
- the sounds [ɛ], [ɜ], [ɘ] also sound identical in my opinion
- the sounds [g] and [ɠ] do not require distinction too
- the sounds [i] and [ɪ], although they are slightly different from each other, can also be used interchangeably
- the letter ī can be read as [ɟi] or [ɟiː]. By the way, we will be sure that we will not mistakenly read this letter as ế [eː]
- the sounds [l], and [ɭ] also seem identical to me, as do [ʎ] vs [lʲ] and [m] vs [ɱ]
- I also allow for the interchangeability of the sounds [r], [ɾ], [ʁ] and [ɽ], just like [t] and [ʈ]
- instead of [u] you can read [ʊ], and also [w], and [i] as [j] if this vowel is adjacent to a vowel. However, you should be careful with the letters: ú (pronounced only as [uj]), ǐ (pronounced only as [ju]), į (pronounced only as [iw]), ł (pronounced only as [wi]), because in these cases it is necessary to specify which sound is to be a vowel and which is to be a consonant. In addition, even in the above cases, [u] can always be read as [ʊ], and [i] as [ɪ]. For example, ú can also be read as [ʊj]. Likewise, it doesn't make much difference to me whether the word "û" (new) is read as [wa], [ua], [ʊa], [uɐ], or [ʊɐ], etc.

In summary, I believe that this sizable amount of allophones can make it much easier for potential users to learn the pronunciation of this language, because I am not imposing specific pronunciation rules, and instead the user can choose which sound is most convenient for them to pronounce (although they would still have to learn some, like [ɟ], [ɒ], or [eː], because the letters đ[7], å, and ế have only 1 way to pronounce correctly). However, if someone thinks that I do not distinguish between sounds that are very different from each other, it would mean that different dialects of Kaël would NATURALLY arise (depending on the native languages of the users of this conlang), which in my opinion would be a favorable phenomenon.

Self-appearing vowels

At the very end of discussing these very complicated rules of pronunciation, spelling, etc., it is necessary to mention vowels that are not written down, but still have to be pronounced. I called them „appearing" - in pronunciation. If you speak English or French at any level, you surely know that these languages are full of silent sounds, i.e. those that have to be written down, although they are not pronounced (especially the letter e at the end of a word, or a consonant - in the case of French). Here, on the other hand, it is exactly the opposite - certain sounds are not written down, but you

[7] Theoretically, you could read the letter đ as [d͡ʑ] instead of [ɟ], but I prefer to avoid such pronunciation since I suppose that words with this letter would then sound childish

have to know that they have to be pronounced!!! But don't worry, this only applies to the vowel ì, less often e. This happens in several cases:

- Many consonants are next to each other. It is known that then the pronunciation can be very complicated, so somewhere between the consonants you can squeeze the sound ì (but only in the pronunciation). However, it is worth avoiding putting this sound between letters constituting one and the same word-forming or prepositional suffix, but putting it between the root of the word (of course ending with a consonant[8]) and the suffix, and between suffixes, is very welcome, although not obligatory. Therefore, it is worth knowing these suffixes. Their list can be found in Chapter 10.
- A word consists of one letter, which is a consonant, or contains only consonants[8]. Yes, there are such words – they include, among others: singular personal pronouns (k, d, h), and prepositions, if they are used as a separate word (not as a suffix), e.g.: p (=in), r (=about), z (=to), nᵹ (=at). It should be remembered here that the ì sound must be at the beginning of the word. Pronunciation at the end is unacceptable, especially in the case of personal pronouns, because then we create the accusative form, and therefore a direct object. This would mean that the people described by these pronouns are the objects of the action being performed – not the subject performing the action.
- The letter ì can be hidden by a dash if it is the accusative ending – and is therefore used as a suffix indicating a direct object. This only happens when we place the verb directly after it. For example, the sentence „I don't have a brother" can be written as „Ftì rěk" or „Ft-rěk". Both sentences are pronounced the same way – in line with the spelling in the first translation, but I prefer writting as in the second one – because it is more concise. I wrote more about it in chapter 9.
- The word begins and/or ends with a double consonant. Double consonants can be problematic because they should always be pronounced in such a way that this „doubleness" is audible. Therefore, the sound ì should also appear in the pronunciation when a given word begins with a consonant of this type. When a word ends with a double consonant, a very short „u" should be „inserted" at the end of the word - pronounced so quickly as if the sound were not there at all - the point is simply to make this doubleness audible in the pronunciation. According to the IPA notation, such a very short „u" is written as „ŭ".
- A voiced consonant is adjacent to a voiceless one. In Polish, it is obvious that when a voiced and an unvoiced consonant is next to each other, one of them is voicing or devoicing. For example, in the word „potwierdzać" (to confirm) the letter w [v] is read as [f]. In Kaël, this is unacceptable! In such a case, the sound ì should be placed between such consonants in the pronunciation. The exception are words ending in -tva – such an ending can be read as -dva. I allow this because if a word ends in -tva, it is definitely a passive adjectival participle derived from a verb ending in -te in the infinitive. In turn, no verb in this form ends in -de, because this ending would mean that the verb occurs in the second person singular in the interrogative form.
- When a word ends with a voiced consonant. This rule applies to the letters: b, ḅ, d, ḍ, đ, ḍ, g, g̨, ǵ, ĝ, ĝ̨, j, v, ɣ, z, z̨. I am pointing this out because I am a native speaker of a language in which voiced consonants at the end of a word are pronounced as voiceless. For example, in the Polish word „brzeg" (a coast) I pronounce the letter „g" as „k". As I mentioned in the

[8] It does not apply to consonants combined with -i, or to the letters: ł, x̌.

previous point, the pronunciation of voiced consonants without a voice and voiceless consonants without a voice is unacceptable[9], so hereit is necessary to insert a very short sound [ŭ] too. For aesthetic reasons, the letter đ is an exception. I recommend adding a very short [ĭ] to words ending with this letter. **You can therefore skip this point if you are a native speaker of a language in which such devoicing does not occur.**

- When dealing with group B verbs. In the chapter devoted to verbs, I described that in the conjugation of verbs from this group, the letter „e" cannot be written in the present tense unless it appears just before an inflectional ending indicating the person, number and gender of the verb and the verb is not in a negated form.

As you can see, just knowing the pronunciation of the 211 letters is not enough to be able to read Kaël texts correctly. You also need to know at least basic vocabulary and grammar. Similarly, in Japanese, you need to know at least a little bit of the grammar of the language to know when the letter は (ha) should be pronounced as „wa", i.e. „irregularly".

I know that the rules described in this section can be complicated for a beginner. Therefore, in the further part of the manual, when a word appears in which there will be any „unwritten" vowel that must be pronounced, I will write its pronunciation in such {curly} brackets - then you should read the letters according to the rules of pronunciation – all inobvious „unwritten vowels" will be written here. In turn, I will use [square] brackets if it is more convenient for me to write the pronunciation according to the IPA system. You should be careful with this second bracket especially when I will give the pronunciation of words with a consonant at the end of the word, after which you should pronounce a very short „u" or „i". These sounds cannot be written with Kaël letters, and according to the IPA they are written as [ŭ] and [ĭ], i.e. with a breve, which in turn in Kaël shows that the vowel is tonal.

2. Example texts

The following texts present a comparison of Kaël not only with the aforementioned Ithkuil, but also with Esperanto and natural languages such as Polish and English.

1) In the case of Ithkuil and Kaël, I show both the correct and phonetic spellings. I have noticed (unfortunately) that the English and Esperanto versions differ slightly[10], so I am including a translation (literal) from Esperanto.

Esperanto	Dum nia veturilo foriĝas de la grundo kaj plonĝas super la randon de la klifo al la valfondo, mi demandas min ĉu estas eble malpezigi ke mi kulpas (senkulpigi min) pro morala manko, malsukcesinte konservi taŭgan vojon laŭ la strato.
English	As our vehicle leaves the ground and plunges over the edge of the cliff toward the valley floor, I ponder whether it is possible that one might allege I am guilty of an act of moral failure, having failed to maintain a proper course along the roadway.
Polish	Kiedy nasz pojazd odrywa się od ziemi i spada z krawędzi klifu na dno doliny, zastanawiam się, czy można lekceważyć moją winę (bez obwiniania mnie) za błąd moralny wynikający z nieutrzymania właściwego pasa wzdłuż ulicy.
Ithkuil	Pul̀ uíqišx ma'wałg eřyaufënien¯ päţwïç aŭë'yaļt xne'wïļta'şui tua kit öllá yaqazmuiv li'yïrzişka' p'amḿ aìlo'wëčča šu'yehtaş.
	[ˈpõlː ʊˈíqìʃx ˈmáʔwàʟg ɐʁjɑʊfɤˈníɛ́n ˈpǽθwɯ̀ç aʊˈxɤ́ʔjàɬt xnɛʔwiɬˈtáʔʂʊì tʊ́à kît œlˈːă jaˈqázmʊìv lɪʔjɯrˈzíʂkàʔ p'ămː aɪlɔˈwɤ́tʃːà ʃʊʔˈjɛ́htàʂ]

[9] This rule is very important because it can help avoid misunderstandings and will certainly make listening comprehension easier. For example: "ik" means "I am", "Ig" - an information, "id" - you are, "it" - here.
[10] Sources: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ithkuil and https://eo.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ithkuil.

Kaël	Ål Ǵĉḗḱ ̀lnẚ Fòlt i buv S̀klsegt Volálz, ɠxè i̇e tỏ vzåẹ̀i ȷ̂ťák (k-ȷ́tàtè̀l) ɜra İnɜ, ŝeřífo trḗà Sṳ Útst.	
	[ʔɒl ˈgit͡ʂeːkɔr ˈlinsh ˈfɔɨ̆lt ʔi ˈbuvŭ ˈsiklsɛgɨ̆t ˈvolɒjlɨ̆žŭ, ˈgzɛksɛɨ̆ ˈʔihɛ ˈthɔ ˈvzɒɛ ˈwɨ̆ ˈʐitaʔik (ˈkɨ̆ ˈʐitaɨ̆tɛɨ̆li) ˈmra ˈhinɨ̆m, ˈʂɛrjɛfhɔ ˈtrɛ ˈjaɨ̆ ˈsun ˈʔujtɨ̆st]	

2)

English	On the contrary, I think it may turn out that this rugged mountain range trails off at some point.	
Polish	Wręcz przeciwnie, myślę, że może się okazać, że to urwiste pasmo górskie w pewnym momencie się załamie.	
Ithkuil	Tram-mļöi hhâsmařpţuktôx.	
Kaël	Ꝑo, ãvkù ìi̇t ̓ṳ eŝpû Vạìđ vg Ĥùcỏ.	
	[ˈpsɔ, ˈʔãvɨ̆kwɨ̆ ˈʔɨ̆jhth ʔu ʔɛ ˈʔɛʂpwa ˈvawɨ̆ʝɨ̆ ˈvɨ̆gŭ ˈɣwɨ̆t͡sɔh]	

It is true that Ihkuil turned out to be slightly better in terms of text length, but let's not forget that when creating Kaël I wanted to find the right compromise between the brevity of the language and its ease – so that anyone interested could learn it without any problems.

3)

English[11]	Now the whole world had one language and a common speech. As people moved eastward, they found a plain in Shinar and settled there. They said to each other, "Come, let's make bricks and bake them thoroughly." They used brick instead of stone, and tar for mortar. Then they said, "Come, let us build ourselves a city, with a tower that reaches to the heavens, so that we may make a name for ourselves; otherwise we will be scattered over the face of the whole earth." But the Lord came down to see the city and the tower the people were building. The Lord said, "If as one people speaking the same language they have begun to do this, then nothing they plan to do will be impossible for them. Come, let us go down and confuse their language so they will not understand each other." So the Lord scattered them from there over all the earth, and they stopped building the city. That is why it was called Babel, because there the Lord confused the language of the whole world. From there the Lord scattered them over the face of the whole earth.
Kaël	Lagf́i̬ɠa 3ajn x El-rei̇, zå uđa Sồ. I ɜ́g ɜēĭ́ı́f̂t, Vol-l̀ii̇ Šnêrof̂p i̭t talagi̇. I ɜóši̇̃: «Zẹd́, Tâl-ĉẹḱ i̬-a̰tvdạḱ A̰tp». I ål na Tál-ri̇ Quu̇ i Ḽḗì Xalů, ɜoi̇: «Zẹd́, x̌-Vaf̂-ẹrạḱ i̭x̂ ȷ̂ Ḟiŝḗ Lta-sûpỏ, ı́đ Jẽ-x̌-ĉêḱ, ùr̨ fùcŭḱ eɠa 3ajǹ». I Ĥ vei̇scỉ Ltàt ùr̨ Vaf̂í̥̋ Ox̂-tală ȷ́ Eɜ́ ẹrai̇, i ɜóĥ: X Eɜđ-ii̇, ɜx̌ x El-ṙ, i èɜ taẹrai̇. Re Îvp ǹɜ́ ḩ ẹ̰ta-i̇ j sobĉě. Re lɜẹḱ i̭t Elḗ-ƀṷḱ, ùr̨ izŭ̋ši̇̃!». Iđ i̇-fùt̀ĥ ot̄ eɠa 3aȷ̂băt̀ǹb, ı́đ e Vaf̂-i̥ẹráei̇. Ùr̨ e-evt̀ḽ Babel, ɜẹ̭t El-ẹ̀xĥ Lagf̂ǹ eɠa 3ajn. Ot̄ iŝ i̇-fùt̀ĥ eɠa 3aȷ́băt̀ǹb.

3. Nouns

I assume that the person reading this book knows the names and definitions of the basic parts of speech[12], so I don't see the need to discuss them. It is worth noting at the outset that all nouns (except for days of the week and months) can be written with a capital letter. The exception are nouns combined with the previous word by a connecting vowel. I introduced this rule solely for aesthetic reasons[13], so it is absolutely not mandatory to follow it.

[11] Source: https://www.biblegateway.com/passage/?search=Genesis%2011&version=NIV
[12] Otherwise, I suggest you repeat these so basic informations from primary school.
[13] While browsing through any texts in German, I noticed that the obligation to write (almost) all nouns with a capital letter creates a very interesting visual effect.

Singular/Plural

As in most European languages, we distinguish singular and plural. Theoretically, you can also use a multiple, although I created it more with verbs in mind, which is why it was discussed in that chapter. In the case of nouns, you can just as well use the appropriate numeral (e.g. Ǵĉlu = lu Ǵĉ - two cars), but in the case of verbs, for example, using these „other" numerals can make precise statements much more convenient.

Forming the plural

The suffix that can be added to a noun[14] to create a plural is -i. Whether it is attached to a consonant or a basic vowel, it will create a common character with it (with the so-called acute accent).

It should be remembered that the plural or multiple form is not used with numerals - they indicate the quantity of given objects, so the declination by numbers with numerals does not make sense. The same rule applies in Hungarian and Japanese - a noun must be in the singular if it is preceded by a cardinal numeral.

Declension

case	sing.	du.	pl.
Nominative	-ø / -u / -i	-lu	-i
Dative	-ìn / -i̯	-lùn	-ȉn
Accusative	-ì	-lù	-ȉ/-ol
Vocative	-ìf	-lùf	-ȉf

There are only 4 cases: nominative, genitive, accusative and vocative. Unlike in Slavic languages, there is no dative, instrumental or locative case, because they can be replaced with appropriate suffixes. For example, the dative is formed before the suffix „-z" (=to), while the instrumental and locative cases are formed with the appropriate other prepositions. It is worth noting that after adding the suffix -z to pronouns, irregular forms are created: x̂, ḍ, ḥ, x̌, dĵ/ḍi, ḥi (more about them in the chapter „Pronouns"). Such pronouns can be written with a dash before the verb or direct object (if there is one). More about them can be found in the chapter „Word order in a sentence".

Notes:

- -u disappears in the declension, in singular, plural, multiple and when adding word-formation suffixes, if it is marked in the dictionary with an apostrophe. However, in the case of verbal nouns ending in -ę, -u may (does not have to) disappear in the declension, but in the plural and multiple it cannot disappear (because otherwise we will create an interrogative form of the verb). We can use the ending -ł or -ú. Similarly, if we have any noun that in nominative singular ends with -i, in nominative plural we have -í (but in other cases and after adding a suffix, you need to add these endings to the form ending in -i).
- in the accusative plural there are 2 possible endings that can be used interchangeably.
- if the singular root ends with a consonant other than the one combined with -i, the letter ì is not written in the genitive and vocative cases (but it remains in the pronunciation).
- ~~the use of the vocative case is completely optional, as it is not present in many languages (but here I give such an option). Its use is even unnecessary if we use the conjunction j or ǰ after it.~~
- the letters n, ì and f can be written both as suffixes and as separate words placed before the noun in question. For example, the expression „teacher's book" can be translated as „Tãqn Kòń" (a teacher's book) or „Kòń n Tãq" (a book of a teacher).

[14] And not only – it is known that verbs, participles, adjectives can also appear in both singular and plural forms, formed in an identical way.

- I know perfectly well that due to the basic purpose of this conlang, the vocative case is needed here like a barber is needed by a bald man, but I allow its use because I am used to it myself, as a Slavic native speaker. That's why its use is completely optional. What is more, using it is even unnecessary if we use the conjunction j or ǰ after it.

4. Adjectives and adverbs

Adjectives

Words belonging to this part of speech almost always end in -a in their uninflected form. They decline like nouns (however, -a never disappears in declension), but only when they are used „on their own", i.e. without a noun. If they are adjacent to it, we have the choice of declining the adjective or the noun (provided that the adjective comes before the noun). Declining both of them would be unprofitable, because then an unnecessarily longer text would be created.

Comparison of adjectives

The comparison of adjectives in Kaël consists in adding an appropriate suffix to the adjective (in the equal degree), and in the case of the superlative, we also add a prefix.

- In the comparative degree – we add the ending -p
- In the superlative degree – we add the ending -i̯
- In the „most" superlative degree – we add the letter i̯ at the beginning and at the end

The last of these degrees, rare in European languages, was taken from Hungarian. For example, i̇sa means „high" (Hungarian: magas), and i̯i̇sai̯ - the highest of the highest (Hungarian: legeslegmagasabb).

Adverbs

They always end in -o. They can be graded in exactly the same way as adjectives.

5. Numerals

Cardinal numerals

The table below shows the only numerals that you need to know to create any number in Kaël. It is very simple. For numerals smaller than 1000, it is enough to read each digit[15] in the number in words, but as if it were one word.

0	ul	10	ge/xul	20	lul[16]	30	atul	40	nęl	50	iƥul	60	a̯ul	70	eŝul	80	oŝul	90	sa̧l
1	x	11	x̄	21	lùx	31	Atx̂	41	nèx	51	Iƥx̂	61	a̯x̂	71	eŝx̂	81	oŝx̂	91	sàx
2	lu	12	xlu	22	lu̯lu	32	atlu	42	nelu	52	iƥlu	62	a̯lu	72	eŝlu	82	oŝlu	92	salu
3	at	13	xat	23	lût	33	atat	43	nêt	53	iƥat	63	a̯at	73	eŝat	83	oŝat	93	sât
4	ne	14	xne	24	lu̯e	34	atne	44	ne̯e	54	iƥne	64	a̯ne	74	eŝne	84	oŝne	94	sa̯e

[15] A digit, so here I mean only numbers in the range 0-9. We use „ge" only for the number 10, and when there are 10 thousand of something, 10 million, etc.
[16] Spelling it like lu̯l is optional.

5	iþ	15	x̀þ	25	lúþ	35	at̀þ	45	néþ	55	iþiþ	65	a̰iþ	75	ešþ	85	ošþ	95	sáþ
6	a̰	16	xa̰	26	lua̰	36	ata̰	46	nea̰	56	iþa̰	66	a̰a̰	76	eŝa̰	86	oŝa̰	96	saa̰
7	eŝ/es	17	xes	27	lǔŝ	37	ateŝ	47	něŝ	57	iþeŝ	67	a̰eŝ	77	eŝeŝ	87	oŝeŝ	97	sǎŝ
8	oŝ	18	xoŝ	28	lûŝ	38	atoŝ	48	nêŝ	58	iþoŝ	68	a̰oŝ	78	eŝoŝ	88	oŝoŝ	98	sâŝ
9	sa	19	xsa	29	lusa	39	atsa	49	nesa	59	iþsa	69	a̰sa	79	eṣ̂a	89	oṣ̂a	99	sasa

100	iɜ / ìxul̉lu
101	iɜx̂
1000	lî / ìxul̉at
10^6	eg / ìxulả̰
10^9	ar / ìxulả̰

So, as you can see, if the numeral has a units digit equal to 1 (and the tens digit is 3, 5, 6, 7 or 8), exceptionally we change x to x̂. When it comes to numbers containing the digit 7, you can use the forms es and eŝ interchangeably - just remember that if this digit is the number of ones, it is better to use the form eŝ - to be sure that you will not create a verb belonging to group 2. It should be remembered that if zero is the number of tens, you can use the word „iɜ" (and if the number of hundreds is „1", you omit „ìx" in the written form). If the number of ones is also zero, you should omit the digit „ul" in the pronunciation.

On the other hand, if we mean a number greater than a (several) thousand, it is worth using the word Í, which separates the digits constituting thousands, millions, billions, etc. This word has the same function as a space or a dot in the Arabic notation of these large numbers. If we are talking about numbers worth millions or billions, we can replace the word Í with eg, ar, to make it easier for our interlocutor to understand what a large number we are talking about. Examples:

500	iþiɜ / iþulul / iþuĺlu
110	iɜge / iɜxul
120	~~iɜluke~~ iɜlul
210	lúɜge
805	ašɜ́þ
1834	Íaŝatne
1015	Íx̀þ
1957	Ísáþeŝ
3 338 467 565	atÍ atataŝÍ nea̰eŝÍ iþa̰iþ
	atar atataŝÍ nea̰eslíþa̰iþ
12 708 015	xluÍ es̀ɜaŝÍ x̀þ

But what if we mean much larger numbers, like a quintillion? With them in mind, I created an additional way to read numbers – it consists of the following scheme: digit (which is repeated) + letter h + number of these repeated digits, for example: 2 444 = lṵeȧt. So let's look at the longer equivalents of the numbers in the table above: one hundred, one thousand, one million, and one billion. They were created according to an identical pattern. So how do you say „a quintillion" in Kaël? It's simple! You just need to know that this number has 18 zeros, and you can say: xul̉xoŝ. And what about 50 sextillion? – iþul̉lulu. And what if we have the sum of a huge number and some much smaller one, e.g. 1,000,000,002,024? The conjunction „v" will come in handy here (ìxulḭxlu v luÍ lṵe / xulḭxlu v lul̄ṵe) or a bit of cleverness: ÍÍÍ lul̄ṵe – if there are several Í next to each other, we know that there are only zeros between them (and the lack of any digit at the beginning means that the number starts with one, which can be seen in the above example of writing the number 1015).

You should also be careful when using the letter h. For example, when reading 4,446, remember that neȧta̰ would mean a number that consists of only fours, and there are 36 of them. In such a case, after using the number that specifies the number of given digits in the number, you should press the letter j to avoid such a misunderstanding. So the number 4,446 can be read as nẻluja̰ or neÍ nḛên.

For writing numerals, I recommend the Kaktovik and Cistercian systems – the former for „simpler numerals" (smaller than 2000). Instructions for their use can be found on the websites: dcode.fr/cistercian-numbers and dcode.fr/kaktovik-numerals

Ordinal numerals

0	ûl
1	îx / xa
2	lū
3	ât
4	nā
5	îƥ
6	ân
7	es
8	aŝ
9	sâ
10	xûl / gē
100	îɜ
1000	Íâ
10^6	êg
10^9	âr

They are formed in the same way as cardinal numbers, with the only difference being that the last digit should be changed to the one in the table for ordinal numbers.

Other numerals

The table below shows other possible numerals. The last three probably don't require much discussion - using the numeral „lu" as an example, I showed how to say that something is double, that something happens twice, or how to specify the number of people taking part in an action/event. However, it is worth devoting some attention to fractional numerals.

lú	0.5 (Ìliƥ=líƥ)
lùr̂	double
lùs	twice

If the numerator of a given fraction is 1, then we add -i to the last digit of the numeral. As in the table below, ⅕ is simply iƥi. If we use decimal fractions, we put Ì in place of the „comma". This is how ⅕(iƥi)=0.2(Ìlu). Another interesting example: the number π = atÌ xnèx̀ƥ salûn̈ƥat̀ƥ. There is nothing extraordinary here - I gave a numeral that is an integer, used the word Ì, and then listed the digits that follow the decimal point one by one (by the way, this is how such numerals are pronounced in natural languages too). In this case, I do not have to use the word Í - just as in English, I can read the number 3.1415 as „three comma one four one five" - I do not have to read „three comma one thousand four hundred fifteen", although I could.

Date and time

What would the science of numbers be without these essential elements, which are an indispensable part of everyday life, in which we use numbers. I find the use of vocabulary related to giving dates and times very intuitive.

Telling time o'clock

Let's start with the most basic words:

- An hour – Ur
- A minute – Pu̯
- A second - Ta̯

As you can see, there are no words for *quarter* in Kaël, nor do you need to use phrases like *half past* in English. The numerals themselves are so short that using such phrases defeats the purpose. Similarly, you don't need to give the time in the form of „ten to seven" - in this case it's easier to say „six fifty", although the phrases „kèd̨ ês" and „Ân iƥul" can be used interchangeably.

It's 9:00	Sâ (Ur)-i̇
At 9:00	Sai̯̇
It's 11:03	X̄a̯t (Ur)-i̇
At 11:03	X̄i̯̇ {ksksìh} at
It's 16:15	Xân x̀ƥ (Ur)-i̇
It's 6:30	Ân atul (Ur)-i̇
I get up at 7:45 every day	Taðx ɜĩpô esi̯̇ néƥ
It's 0:00 (It's midnight)	Ûl (Ur)-i̇ (Axta̯-i̇)
It's 12:00 (It's noon)	Xlū (Ur)-i̇ (Povt-i̇)
The time is 0:10 / It's 0:10	Ûl ke (Ur)-i̇

For simplicity, the day in Kaël is divided into 4 parts: Ax (night – between midnight and 6:00 a.m.), Ûr (morning – between 6:00 a.m. and 12:00 p.m.), Pov̄tu/Pov́tḍ (afternoon – between noon and 6:00 p.m.) and Ǵv (evening – between 6:00 p.m. and midnight).

And finally, an important (so interesting) fact: The following time formats are allowed here:

- 24-hour format – that's what I use in the examples above. It's the most convenient format, because you never have to indicate whether you mean morning, afternoon or evening. And the numbers are short enough anyway that pronouncing those above 12 shouldn't be much less convenient than those below 12.
- 12-hour format – popular in English-speaking countries. In my opinion, it is less convenient in Kaël, because you have to indicate whether you are giving the time before noon (Axp / Axtàḍ = after midnight, abbreviated „a.t." – equivalent to the English „a.m.") or afternoon (Pov̄tu/Pov́tḍ = after noon, abbreviated „p.v." – in English „p.m."). Remember, however, that the notation 12:10 a.t. means 12:10 in the 24-hour format, because it is literally 12:10 „after midnight", which can also be written as 00:10 p.v. – i.e. 00:10 in the afternoon (or simply 10 minutes after the afternoon). And the English notation 12:10 p.m. as the time as 00:10 after midnight seems inconsistent to me, since „p.m." in English it is used to indicate afternoon / evening hours.
- 6-hour format – since I have already divided the day into four 6-hour parts, I also accept this format, although it seems crazy and inconvenient to me - like the overuse of the sumti place tags in Lojban. For example, the hour 8:11 would be written in the 12-hour format as 8:11 a.t., and in the 6-hour format as 2:11 Ûrp, that is, giving the time in such a way that the morning started 2 hours and 11 minutes ago (counting from 6:00 a.m., of course). Analogously, the hour 21:08 in the 12-hour format would be written as 9:08 p.v., and in the 6-hour format as 3:08 Ǵvp, that is, 3 hours and 8 minutes have passed since the evening began. And if someone wants to be really mean to the interlocutor, they could theoretically specify this time as 15:08 Ûrp, indicating how much time has passed since morning (since 6:00 a.m.).

Providing dates

Months		Days of the week	
January	iĉ	Monday	x̓e
February	ñ	Tuesday	xa
March	sa̰	Wednesday	su
April	în	Thursday	õ
May	go	Friday	kḭ
June	rõ	Saturday	dó
July	ĉa̰	Sunday	ñĉ
August	ȧĉ		
September	ḱõ		
October	ĝ		
November	iĝ		
December	ñĝ		

Examples:

Sunday is a day off from work.	Ñĉ neɜa dǒùt Po-ỉ.
I rest on Sunday.	Ñĉp atk.
I work from Monday to Friday, from 8:00 to 16:00.	Dok x̓èt kḭìz/kḭìb Urìve ôŝ – xân.
Today is September 13, 2024.	Ɜå xât ḱǫ lul̄ṵē Iv-ỉ.
The school year begins on September 1.	Îxp ḱǫ Tãv̄iv-taṡ.
The school year lasts from September to June.	Tãv̄īv ḱǫìt rǫìz / rǫìb-rỉ.
On May 3, Poles do not go to work because it is a national holiday.	Âtp go/Ât gòp Lǔɜ́ dǒùz ɜeẻ, ɜe̯r̂ĺoɜ-ỉ.

There's probably nothing difficult here. Instead of the English on/in, we put the suffix -p (literally meaning „in" in English).

6. Pronouns

Personal pronouns

They are actually very similar, even identical to... the verb endings that correspond to them. When pronouncing them as a separate word in the singular, remember to pronounce ì at the beginning of the word (which of course only happens in pronunciation, never in writing)

EN	usual	formal
I	k	g̈
you	d	ḍ
he/she/it	h	ĥ
we	ḱ	g̈i
you (pl.)	ḍ	ḍi
they	i̇	ĥi

Notes:

- As in Hungarian, no pronouns are distinguished by gender in Kaël. However, if someone really wants to emphasize the gender of the person being spoken to, they can use the following pronouns (which of course can also be part of the conjugation ending):

he	hḟ
she	hń
it	ėt

Of course, I advise against using them because they increase the length of words.

- Formal pronouns are used to express polite expressions, but only in exceptional situations – when showing a person exceptionally great respect, e.g. when addressing a deity that one worships. As you can see, one can address oneself in this way not only to one's interlocutor, but one can also speak in a polite style about outsiders, or even about oneself (if someone considered themselves a god, for example). These pronouns can also be a fragment of the ending of a conjugated verb.

Possessive pronouns

EN	usual		complete	
my	kå	-åk	kḗ	-ḗk
your	då	-åd	dḗ	-ḗd
his / her / its	hå	-åh	ḗ	-ḗ
our	ḱå	-åḱ	ḱḗ	-ḗḱ
your	ḍå	-åḍ	ḍḗ	-ḗḍ
their	i̇å	-åi̇	i̇ḗ	-ḗi̇

They can be either a separate word or a suffix (marked with a dash) attached to the noun/adjective they describe. I have introduced a division here into usual and complete pronouns – to emphasize that something can be mine, i.e. used by me, although I am not its owner, e.g. a book borrowed from a library – when talking about them, it is better to use ordinary pronouns, while when talking about books I have bought, I will use complete pronouns. Thanks to this division, it is easy to show the interlocutor whether you are the owner or just the user of something. If you are neither the owner nor the user, but you still have something/someone (e.g. friends, family), it is better to use total pronouns.

Impersonal pronoun

This pronoun is used to indicate that a given action is performed by a given group of people, most often without any specific indication of who exactly is being referred to. It is the equivalent of the Portuguese pronoun *a gente*, Esperanto's *oni*, French *on*. Like personal pronouns, the impersonal pronoun is best used as a conjugation ending of verbs. For conjugation groups 1 and 3, it is the pronoun *ĵ*, and for group 2 – *ĵi* or *ĵs*.

Correlatives

These are nothing more than pronouns other than possessive or personal. For example, the words: *what, who, how, where* are interrogative pronouns, although here I will call them interrogative

correlatives. The distinction of this part of speech is another proof that I modeled myself on Esperanto (although one can notice many borrowings from Hungarian), thanks to its ease of creating correlatives, e.g. indefinite from interrogative. For those who do not know Esperanto, I can add that correlatives are divided into interrogative, demonstrative, indefinite, universal and negating and can also differ from each other with regard to what they describe: an object, a person, a feature, a way, a place, a direction, time, quantity, reason or belonging. This division is presented in the two tables below (I also placed words in Esperanto, to show the regularity of this language vs. the regularity of Kaël):

	interrogative			demonstrative			indefinite		
	EO	Kaël	English	**EO**	Kaël	English	**EO**	Kaël	English
object	**kio**	ś	what	**ĉi tio/u**	e	this	**io**	vś	something
person	**kiu**	x̀	who	**tiu/o**	å	that	**iu**	vx̂	somebody
feature	**kia**	śa	what kind of	**ĉi tia**	ê	this kind of	**ia**	va	a kind of
				tia	åa	that kind of			
way	**kiel**	śđ	how	**ĉi tiel**	iđ	this way	**iel**	vođ / vđ	somehow
				tiel	ođ	that way			
place	**kie**	ol / oz	where	**ĉi tie**	it	here	**ie**	vo	somewhere
				tie	ot	there			
direction	**kien**	olb / ozb	where to	**ĉi tien**	itb	into here	**ien**	vòb	into somewhere
				tien	otb	into there			
time	**kiam**	śg	when	**tiam**	og	then	**iam**	vg	sometime
quantity	**kiom**	sẽ	how much / many	**tiom**	ẽ	this amount	**iom**	vẽ	an amount (of)
reason	**kial**	śr	why	**tial**	x̀r	that's why	**ial**	vŕ	for some reason
belonging	**kies**	sé / śe	whose	**ties**	zé / x̀e	belonging to this	**ies**	vé / ve	somebody's

Before we move on to the second table, let's note 2 important features of the above correlatives:

- Interrogative correlatives can be supplemented with „k-", which corresponds to English „any", e.g.: kś - anything, kx̀ - anyone, ksé - someone's, kśr - for any reason
- Demonstrative pronouns: og, ẽ, x̀r and zé/x̀e can be supplemented with the distancing suffix „-i" - this is the opposite of the Esperanto's particle ĉi. This will give us the following correlatives: oǵ (at that time), ẽi (that amount), x̀ŕ (for that reason) and x̀é (belonging to that)

	universal			negating		
	EO	Kaël	English	**EO**	Kaël	English
object	**ĉio**	sĩ / śn	everything	**nenio**	ǹś / ǹs	nothing
person	**ĉiu**	sx̂	everyone	**neniu**	nx̂	nobody
feature	**ĉia**	sa	any way	**nenia**	ǹa	nothing
way	**ĉiel**	sđ	in every way	**neniel**	ǹđ / nđ	in any way
place	**ĉie**	śõ	everywhere	**nenie**	ǹo	nowhere
direction	**ĉien**	śõb	to every place	**nenien**	ǹòb	to nowhere
time	**ĉiam**	sg	always	**neniam**	ǹg / ng	never
quantity	**ĉiom**	ŋẽ	any amount	**neniom**	nẽ	no amount
reason	**ĉial**	ñr	for every reason	**nenial**	ǹr	for no reason
belonging	**ĉies**	śé	belonging to everyone	**nenies**	né / ǹe	nobody

It is worth noting here that from the word зx̂ you can create зx̌ – everyone.

7. Verbs

Like the above parts of speech (except correlatives), they are declined in the singular, plural, and multiple. In the infinitive form, they always consist of a root and the ending -e or -es – depending on the conjugation group.

Conjugation

Despite the division of verbs into groups, I consider conjugation to be very simple, almost on the scale of Esperanto. In the case of the present tense, it is enough to replace the ending -e with the ending characteristic for the given number and person (and it is identical to the appropriate pronoun for it). Conjugation of a verb in another tense requires the same actions and adding the appropriate letter between the root and the pronoun ending: -i- for the past tense, -o- for the future tense, -u- for the imperative[17].

Important information: just like in Slavic languages, also in Kaël you can (and even should as often as possible) leave out pronouns that are appropriate to the given conjugation forms (i.e. just like in Polish we say „I'm" as „jestem" instead of „ja jestem"). However, if you really want to emphasize who is performing a given action, you can use a pronoun before the verb (as is the case in English), but then the verb itself should be in the 3rd person singular!!! (because in each conjugation group this form is usually the shortest). Similarly, if the sentence indicates a subject (in the plural) performing a given action, the verb must be conjugated in the singular!!! The reasoning here is very simple: since we already know that there is more than 1 subject, there is no point in duplicating this information in the verb conjugation (just as there is no point in giving a noun in the plural if it is followed by a numeral specifying the number of subjects/objects).

Group 1A

This is the easiest group to conjugate. It includes all verbs with a root ending in a voiceless consonant, l, m, n, r, or a vowel other than e. To conjugate a verb, simply follow the instructions above.

Notes:

- Spelling verbs ending in a basic vowel can be tricky – there are many ways to write the same form of the verb.
- ~~If the root ends in a long vowel, a glottal stop can be used after the root~~

Group 1B

The verbs of this group always end in -ě. This group therefore includes verbs with the following features:

- they are two-letter in the infinitive – the first letter is a consonant (not combined with -i), and the second letter is ě, e.g.: зě (to go), ĉě (to do), čě (to toil). These can of course be longer verbs, formed by adding a suffix, e.g. i̯ĉě (to have done / to finish doing)
- they can have ≥2 consonants before the final -ě

[17] The exception is the 2nd person singular.

With the exception of the present tense, the conjugation is the same as for verbs from group 1A. In the present tense, however, the entire suffix -ě should be removed. When reading the two-letter forms created in this way, it should be remembered that the sound „e" is pronounced between these two consonants, and if a single-letter form can be created in the 3rd person singular, it should still be read so that the sound „e" appears in the middle, e.g. ĉk is read as {ĉek}, and č as {ĉė}. The pronunciation is therefore fully consistent with the conjugation according to the pattern for group 1A.

Group 2A and 2B

These groups are characterized by the presence of the letter -s in the infinitive ending. Almost every transitive verb belonging to this group is a reflexive verb. I have specified this group because of the different endings characteristic for a given number and person (see the table below). This differentiation is necessary, since the „s" present in the infinitive ending also disappears in conjugation. If the verb ends in -ěs, the verb belongs to group 2B and is conjugated identically to group 1B (except, of course, for the separate conjugation endings informing about person and number), and analogously group 2A (in which the infinitive ends in -es) is similar to group 1A. Due to this symmetry, I include verbs from groups 1B and 2B in group B verbs, while verbs from group A include verbs from groups 1A, 2A and 3.

Group 3

It includes only verbs whose stem ends in a voiced consonant (one of the following: b, ḅ, d, ḍ, đ, ḍ, g, ġ, ǵ, ĝ, ĝ, j, v, ẏ, z, ẓ) and the verb īe. They are conjugated in exactly the same way as the verbs from group 1A, with the only difference being that in the 3rd person singular the root is the form of the verb.

Conjugation endings according to number and gender. Formal style of speech

group	1, 3		2	
	usual	formal	usual	formal
I	k	g̈	x	ẋ
you	d	ḅ	c	ċ / c̄
he / she / it	h	ĥ	ḫ	s̄h / s̈
we	ḱ	g̈i	x̀	xi̇ / ẋi / x̀
you	d́	ḅi	c̀	ci̇ / ċi / c̄i / c̀
they	i̇	ĥi	ḫi	ḫi̇

After learning all the conjugation groups, to learn the correct conjugation of verbs, all that is left is to learn the endings appropriate for a given gender and number – they can be found in the table on the side. You can use the „regular" or „formal" endings, depending on the style of your speech. As I wrote in the chapter on pronouns, I do not recommend distinguishing genders into masculine, feminine and neuter, but if someone really wants to emphasize their/someone's gender, you can add the endings in the table above: -f, -ń, -å to create genders: masculine, feminine and neuter, e.g. the word i̇ means „he/she/it is" (no gender distinction at all), and after creating genders, this verb can take the following forms:

- i̇f – he is
- i̇ń – she is
- i̇å – it is. However, I advise against this form for non-binary people, unless someone identifies as an object or an animal of indeterminate gender. This form could rather only occur when the user of the language wants to emphasize that they do not consider someone/something a human (of any gender), but only some miserable thing (e.g. to be used). For example, by saying Ft́ėk qta-i̇å I would be saying about my brother that not only is he stupid, but I also do not consider him a human at all, but just some object.

Finally, I would like to draw attention to a very interesting grammatical nuance – reflexive verbs in the plural are always ambiguous, as long as we use the above endings. For example, if someone tells me about certain people „tãs̀", I understand that „they are learning", but I have no information whether they are teaching[18] each other *(literally: they're learning each other)* (e.g. one of them explains mathematics to the rest of the group, another chemistry, etc.), or whether each of them is learning on their own. To distinguish between them, you can say: tãsĩ (they are *learning* each other), or also tãsi̯ (they are learning, with each focusing on their own learning). So, when proposing to study together, you can say „tãux̀", but if you mean mutual help in studying, it is better to say tãuxĩ, and it will sound best with a suffix indicating a request - then the request will sound as follows: tãuxĩku – meaning: let's study together/mutually, please.

Conjugation - summary table

After discussing the entire theory related to the basics of correct conjugation, it is time to familiarize yourself with the table presenting the conjugation of verbs from all conjugation groups: ite (to throw), ĭ (to be), ĉě (to do), jǎs (to play[19]), eze (to watch) in all possible tenses and in imperative.

Group		1A		1B	2A	2B	3
infinitive		**ite**	**ĭ**	**ĉě**	**jǎs**	**slěs**	**eze**
Present tense	1s.	itk	ik	ĉk	jax	slx	ezk
	2s.	itd	id	ĉd	jac	slc	ezd
	3s.	it̓ / it́	ỉ	č	jaḫ	slḫ	ez
	1pl.	itḱ	iḱ	ĉḱ	jax̀	slx̀	ezḱ
	2pl.	itd́	id́	ĉd́	jac̀	slc̀	ezd́
	3pl.	iti̓ / it́i	ii̓	ĉi̓	jaḫi	slḫi	ezh / ezi̓
Past tense	1s.	it̀k	ík	ĉék	jáx	sléx	ez̀k
	2s.	it̀d	íd	ĉéd	jác	sléc	ez̀d
	3s.	itỉ	iỉ	čeỉ	jáḫ	sléḫ	ez̀h / ezỉ
	3pl.	it̀i̓	íi̓	ĉéi̓	jáḫi	sléḫi	ez̀i̓
Future tense	1s.	itok	îk	ĉêk	jâx	slêx	ezok
	2s.	itod	îd	ĉêd	jâc	slêc	ezod
	3s.	itỏ	iỏ	čeỏ	jâḫ	slêḫ	ezỏ
	3pl.	itỏi / itoi̓	îi̓	ĉêi̓	jâḫi	slêḫi	ezỏi / ezoi̓
imperative	1s.	ituk	i̊k	ĉęk	jąx	slęx	ezuk
	2s.	itu	i̊	ĉę	jąc	slęc	ezu
	3s.	itủ	iủ	ĉeủ	jąḫ	slęḫ	ezủ
	3pl.	itủi / itui̓	i̊i̓	ĉêi̓	jąḫi	slęḫi	ezủi / ezui̓

Verb dualism

I use this name to describe situations in which there are two verbs, among which the stem of one ends in a vowel ĭ preceded by a base consonant, while the stem of the other also ends in a vowel o or u preceded by the same consonant, but combined with -i. In order to understand the complexities that can arise when trying to read their conjugated forms, in the table below I show the variation of the verbs kĭ (=to scream, to bark) and ḱŭ (=to listen) along with their IPA phonetic notation:

	kĭ		ḱŭ	
	Correct notation	IPA	Correct notation	IPA

[18] This is because reflexive verbs are subject to symmetry with their non-reflexive counterparts. For example, the verb tãe means to teach, and tães means to learn

[19] Literally, this verb means „to please oneself" – a nod to its „non-reflexive" counterpart jǎ – „to please someone". Similarly, ĭle means „to create" while ĭles means to appear, i.e. „to create oneself"

Present tense	1s.	ḱk	kik	ḱuk	ki¸uk
	2s.	ḱd	kidŭ	ḱud	ki¸udŭ
	3s.	ḱi̊	kih	ḱů	ki¸uh
	1pl.	ḱḱ	kikər	ḱuḱ	ki¸ukər
	2pl.	ḱd́	kidər	ḱud́	ki¸udər
	3pl.	ḱi	kihər	ḱui	ki¸uhər
Imperative	1s.	ḱo̊k	kjuk	ḱu̧k	kjuwk[20]
	2s.	ḱo̊	kju	ḱu̧	kjuwdŭ
	3s.	ḱo̊h	kjuh	ḱuů	kjuwh
	1pl.	ḱo̊ḱ	kjukər	ḱu̧ḱ	kjuwkər
	2pl.	ḱo̊d́	kjudər	ḱu̧d́	kjuwdər
	3pl.	ḱo̊i	kjuhər	ḱu̧i	kjuwhər

So, as you can see, conjugating verbs with a stem ending in o or u preceded by a consonant combined with -i in the present tense, we should remember to read the diacritical mark over this consonant only as [i], never as [j]. On the other hand, in the conjugation of verbs ending in ǐ preceded by a base consonant in the future tense and in the imperative mode, it should be remembered that a consonant connected with -i cannot be formed. Instead, it will be formed in conjugation forms of the letters î and o̊i, which should be read as [jɔ]/[jo] and [ju], respectively.

Tenses, Modes and Aspect Formation

We already know conjugation – now it's time to learn the rules for using tenses and moods.

Tenses

We distinguish the following tenses:

- Present tense – used when:
  a) we are talking about events happening right now, or cyclically
  b) the situation being discussed takes place at any time (in the past or in the future), but the speaker indicates when the situation took place/will take place, e.g.:
     - (3o) Ŏlb-ɜk {ɜek}. – (Now) I'm going to the cinema.
     - Lå Ŏlb-ɜk. – Tomorrow I'm going to the cinema.
     - Åt Ŏlb-ɜk. – Yesterday I went to the cinema.
- Past tense
- Future tense

The past and future tenses are used depending on whether the action takes place in the past or the future. As I have just mentioned, they can be replaced by the present tense if a specific time indication (such as a date or time) is already indicated. Just as in the case of using the singular form of a noun with a numeral next to it, there is no point in duplicating information about when a given situation takes place. It is worth following this rule especially when we have negated verbs (I discussed the methods of negation on page 30), because if the root ends in a vowel, we will add another vowel indicating tense, and we will add the vowel „e" to this, creating negation, we will have even 3 vowels next to each other, which can make pronunciation really difficult. The phonology of Kaël is so complicated in itself that it makes no sense to complicate it even more by throwing in unnecessary past or future tense forms.

In addition, these tenses have their special use in the formation of the conditional.

[20] Of course the pronunciation [ki¸uwk], [ki¸udŭ], etc. is also correct, but it seems less comfortable to me.

Imperative

There is nothing groundbreaking here – we use the imperative mood to express expectations, demands, etc. towards another person (or ourselves – hence it is no accident that I have included 1st singular forms in the summary table). In the case of gentle requests, it is worth adding the ending -ku to the conjugated form of the verb, e.g.: Kl̂ìv-ṅąku, зe Ȝ̏ìv̄-gkзě. (Please stay with the child because I have to go to the shop.)

Conditionals

These are sentences describing what may happen if a certain condition is met (or not). In English, they are formed using (apart from obvious words like „if", „when") some patterns where you use the word „would" and an auxiliary verb if needed. In Kaël, however, these patterns have been replaced by certain constructions.

Conditional sentences always consist of two parts: condition and result (in English, the description of the condition begins with the word if/when, while the description of the result is a separate part of the sentence). I have divided the types of conditional sentences into individual types and subtypes, depending on which tense we use to describe the condition of a given event or its result. I have illustrated this in the diagram below:

type	condition	result	subtype
A	Future tense	Future tense	1
		Present tense	2
B	Present tense	Future tense	1
		Present tense	2
C	Past tense	Future tense	1
		Present tense	2

Before I discuss the individual types of sentences, it is worth knowing that in Kaël, the word į (=if) is inserted before the description of the condition, and the word ł [wi] (it works like the English „then") is inserted before the description of the result. When composing sentences, you can allow yourself to omit one of these words (which I will show in examples representing the individual types of sentences). If we omit the word ł, and it would be in the middle of the sentence, we should put a dash or at least a comma in its place.

<u>A-conditional sentences</u> therefore describe what may happen as a result of a given situation that will happen in the future. If the result of this event will happen at the same time, the verb of the result clause must be in the present tense, whereas if the result is an event in the even more distant future, the description of the result must be in the future tense. Examples:

	condition	result
EN	If/when you blow too much air into the balloon,	it finally bursts.
Kaël	Į t̔a̰do Ļe-ixod Lob̄	ł i̥ó âṙ.
EN	If the weather is bad tomorrow,	we'll stay at home and watch tv.
Kaël	Į Sã rô-ỉ[21] lå,	ṅak̗ Ȧzp į̬ŝ-ezk̗.
EN	If you revise the exam,	you will pass it easily.
Kaël	Į Petz ósod,	kô e-klêd.

	result	condition

[21] Here, exceptionally, it is the present tense, because we already have a word for time. So using a tense other than the present would be pointless.

EN	I'll tell you everything	if you promise to keep it a secret.
Kaël	Ḍ ʒĩ-ʒôk	į nûd e-trě laƀo.

On the other hand, B-conditionals are used to describe the effects of a situation that is taking place at the present moment. If the result will occur at the same time, we describe it in the present tense, and if in the future, we use the future tense. Examples:

	condition	result
EN	If they asked me for help,	I would tell them what to do.
Kaël	K-ɠ́i Šeùɠ	ł ḥi-ʒok ʒ́-ĉě {ḥi ʒok ʒ̀ì ĉě}.
EN	If he were more organised,	he wouldn't leave everything until the last minute.
Kaël	Į îp asva-ỉ	ł ʒĩ-ilė ḱû Pu̯z.
EN	If i had money,	I would lend some to you.
Kaël	Į Ṕu-rk {Ṕù rek}	ł vẽ-ḍ-lîk {vẽì ḍ lîk}.

Finally, with C-conditionals we describe what may/could happen as a result of a situation that has already taken place. If result would have happened at the same time, we use the present tense, and if it happened later, we have to use the future tense. However, if we are discussing a situation that would have taken place in the past and its effects would have been felt up to now, we can exceptionally describe result in the present tense, with the addition of the word ʒo (=now). Examples:

	condition	result
EN	If you had come to my birthday party,	you would have met my friends.
Kaël	Į Spoĺoʒḗkb-ʒéd,	Áb́ḗk-tatud.

I think that both the future and present tenses fit here in describing the result (as well as in many other conditional sentences). It is really up to the user to decide which tense to use, whether they think the result will happen after the „condition" has happened or during it.

	condition	result
EN	If we had left home an hour earlier,	we would be there now.
Kaël	Į Ur ʒâp Àz-tʒéḱ	ł ʒo na V̄p-iḱ {ìv̄ìp iḱ}.

Interesting fact: In English grammar, there is a type 0 conditional sentence for specifying a result that must always occur if a specific condition occurs (e.g.: If you heat water to 100ºC, it will boil), and a separate type of conditional sentence is used to specify the results of a situation that are unrealistic. In Kaël, however, I would classify both of these types of sentences as type B2 (although the user may use a different type – depending on what they mean), and to specify their (un)certainty, I suggest using the words: ito (certainly), Íû (of course), ṫo (perhaps, maybe; possibly).

Aspects of verbs

This is a very troublesome issue, because when creating grammar I base it on Esperanto, in which there is no clear division between perfective and imperfective aspect. I really wanted the use of aspects to be at least as precise as in Slavic languages (as in Polish: *robić – to do* and *zrobić – to have done*). I have come to terms with the fact that there is no universal word/suffix that would clearly indicate which aspect I am using, but in the case of some verbs I have discovered a way to easily change one aspect to another. It is simply that verbs in the perfective aspect have a basic vowel in the root, and in the imperfective – a lengthened one (e.g. ă=to give, āe=to be giving, āle=to be standing, ale=to have stood (i.e. to stand for a short moment). However, this idea has 2 fundamental flaws:

- some vowels do not have their „lengthened equivalent" (because their formation would complicate pronunciation too much, especially if the only vowel in the root is nasal, or, even worse, tonal), so I would not apply this rule to many verbs anyway,
- in the case of some verbs, the formation of the perfective aspect is not the same as specifying that a given action is performed for a short time (as I would like it to be in Kaël). For example, in Polish the verb „polować" (to hunt) has its perfective equivalent „upolować", which does not mean a short-term hunt at all, but a specific stage of it (capturing an animal)

So in the end I decided to base myself on the system of suffixes/suffixes (as it is in fact in Slavic languages or Esperanto) and particles inspired by Lożban, since vowel lengthening does not always work. Because English does not distinguish between verb aspects, instead there is a division into Perfect and Imperfect past/present/future tenses, below is a set of twelve sentences, each of which (from the point of view of English grammar) uses a different tense:

		Simple	Continuous	Perfect	Prefect continuous
Past	EN	I read yesterday.	I was reading when he came.	I had read it before he came.	I had been reading for 3 hours, before he came.
	Kaël	Oì åt.	Ōì, ʒ́g zeỉ. Zo̯ì, ʒ́g zeỉ. Olŝik, ʒ́g zeỉ.	Í̥oì ùŝl zh.	Ōli̯t Urí ùnl zh. Zo̯li̯t Urí ùnl zh. Olŝik at Urí ùnl zh.
Present	EN	I read everyday.	I'm reading (right now).	I've just read it.	I have been reading for 1 hour.
	Kaël	Olk ʒĩpô.	Olk (ʒo).	Ep e-í̥oì.	Olk x Urp.
Future	EN	I'll read tomorrow.	I'll be reading tomorrow at 9a.m.	I will have finished reading by 10:00.	I'll have been reading for 4 hours, before he will have come.
	Kaël	Olok lå.	Ōlok lå saỉ̥. Zo̯lok lå saỉ̥. Olŝok lå saỉ̥.	Í̥olok gē Urz.	Ōlok ne Urí ùnl zh. Zo̯lok ne Urí ùnl zh. Olŝok ne Urí ùnl zh.

As you can see, all Past and Future Continuous tenses have as many as 3 counterparts in Kaël.

Affixes and particles used to specify the duration of the utterance

To sum up this very complicated section, I would like to provide the following elements that will help you specify the time of a given activity more precisely:

- ż – indicates that the action lasts for a short time
- zo / -ŝ – indicates that the action lasts for a long time
- ta- – indicates that the activity is just beginning
- í̥- – indicates that the activity is just ending
- ep – „just" - informs that the activity is about to start or has *just* finished

Irregular verbs

		Kaël	PT	Kaël	PT	Kaël	PT
infinitive		**lă**	**ver**	**q́ne**	**rir**	**ole**	**ler**
Present tense	1s.	lak	vejo	q́ň	rio	olk	leio
	2s.	lad	vês[22]	q́nd	ris	old	lês

[22] Although in Brazilian Portuguese, 3rd person forms are used for the 2nd person singular, but I do not take this fact into account here, because it causes ambiguity of the given forms (so sometimes you have to use a pronoun to clarify your statement), and I warned you in the Introduction of this manual that I ignore such situations. Moreover, in some regions of northern and eastern Brazil (e.g. Paraíba) the

The only irregular verbs so far are: lă (to see), ą́ne (to laugh), ole (to read), ję, ée, åǐ. Each of the underlined ones has only 1 irregular form.[23] This is of course due to the main idea of the conlang, which can be illustrated by the following comparison of the forms of these verbs with their Portuguese equivalents in the past tense (and, as a reminder, in the present tense):

	3s.	lả	vê	ą́ṅ	ri	oĺ	lê
	1pl.	laḱ	vemos	ą́nḱ	rimos	olḱ	lemos
	2pl.	lad́	vêem	ą́nd́	riem	old́	lêem
	3pl.	laı̀	vêem	ą́nı̀	riem	olı̀	lêem
Past tense	1s.	lá	vi	ą́	ri	ol̀	li
	2s.	lád	viste	ą́ǹd	riste	ol̀d	leste
	3s.	laı̀	viu	ą́nı̀	riu	olı̀	leu
	1pl.	láḱ	vimos	ą́ǹḱ	rimos	ol̀ḱ	lemos
	2pl.	lád́	viram	ą́ǹdd́	riam	ol̀dd́	leram
	3pl.	láı̀	viram	ą́ǹı̀	riram	ol̀ı̀	leram

In my opinion, the Portuguese forms of these verbs simply force Kaël to be irregular. Fortunately, these are only 3 verbs (forced by Portuguese), and they only have one irregular form. Of course, I know that there will certainly be many other languages in which the forms of other verbs will be shorter than their Kaël equivalents, but there's nothing I can do about it. I would have to speak all the languages in the world to fix this (or at least the ones that use the Latin script, which doesn't significantly reduce the pool of languages I would have to learn), if only by giving certain verbs short enough roots to avoid the need to introduce more irregular verbs.

The verbs ję (to finish), ée (to be this) and åǐ (to be that) deserve a separate discussion. Their irregularity results from the fact that I want the pronunciation not to be inconsistent with the spelling. As is well known, I do not want the letter í [ii]/[ij] to be pronounced like ī [ji] and *vice versa*. Since the above verbs are so specific that their root ends with a *vowel combined with -i*, in the past tense there would be a situation in which the vowel (ĺ, é or å) precedes the letter i, which would be difficult to pronounce as [ǒiˌi], [ɛiˌi] and [ɒiˌi]. But reading as [ǒji], [ɛji] and [ɒji] would be much more convenient. Therefore, exceptionally, I allow the form of these verbs in the past tense to consist of the letter ī, not í. For example, in the past tense in the 1st person singular, these verbs will take the following forms: ìik, eīk, åīk.

Multiple number

Verbs are a part of speech that can also be conjugated in both singular and plural forms – as in most European languages. Following the example of some Slavic languages, dual number can also be distinguished, but in this language it is also possible to use triple, quadruple, „quindruple", etc. – i.e. multiple number. How? By simply adding a numeral to the verb, e.g.:

- ik – I am, iḱ – we are, iklu – we (both) are,
- ezat – they (the three of them) are watching,
- zě (to come) -> zh {zeh} – he/she/it comes ->zı̀ɜ {zehiɜ} – they (there are a hundred of them) are coming

Note: it is still worth noting that in the case of the 3rd person plural of the verbs lŭ, ate, ně, a͡e, ese, eŝe, oŝe, să, the numeral indicating the number of people performing the action must be added to the form of the verb in the 3rd person plural, not singular, as should usually be used when using the

above 2nd person forms are still used, so its omission does not occur in all dialects of Brazilian Portuguese, which makes me even more inclined to marginalize this nuance.

[23] I would like to draw a small attention here to the verb lă, because it also has an irregular past participle, which I wrote more about in Chapter 8 on the subject of past participles.

plural. For example: if we want to say "they four are resting," instead of ȧtne we should say atïne, because ȧtne denotes the numeral 3,333.

Negation of verbs

Let's take a look at the examples below:

I am	**ik**	I am watching	**ezk**
I am not	**ǐk**	I am not watching	**ezek**
I was not	**iǐk/ íek**	I did not watch	**ezǐk**
it is not me	**ek i̇**	it is not me who is watching	**ek ez**
he/she/it is	**i̇**	he/she/it is watching	**ez**
he/she/it isn't	**iė=ǐh**	he/she/it isn't watching	**ezė**
it is not he/she/it (who…)	**ė i̇**	it is not him/her who is watching	**ė ez**
not to be	**ǐe=iě**	not to watch	**ezě**

As you can see, to create a negation, all you need to do is „squeeze" the letter „e" just before the conjugative ending for person and number. When using this method, remember that verbs from groups B and 3 decline according to the same pattern as 1, with verbs from group 2 still having endings appropriate for reflexive verbs.

There is also a second, simpler method - just use the affix[24] ę, e.g.: årek (I don't want) = ęårk = årkę. It is very convenient in the 2nd singular form in the imperative mood. It can also be used to negate any other parts of speech.

Formation of questions

To create a question in Kaël, all you need to do is use the appropriate interrogative pronouns (here called correlatives – see: page 22) or use a simple construction, which is the equivalent of English inversion (I'm going → Am I going). To do this, you simply need to add the letter „e" to the conjugated form of the verb at the end. The exception here is the 3rd person singular of verbs in group 3 – then you add the ending -é, because otherwise you will get the infinitive form again. The ending -é is also useful when you want to create a question from the equivalent of the sentence, i.e. in a situation where you do not put the verb in the sentence.

Modal verbs

Generally speaking, these are verbs expressing skills, obligation, or permission. We can distinguish the following verbs among them:

- **gě** = to have to / must, to have obligation to do sth
- **hě** = to should
- **tě** = to may, to have the possibility/opportunity
- **glě** = to can, to be able to sth (=to have an ability)
- **kě** = to need
- **į̇be** = to have the right/permission to do something (note: there is also the verb ile = allow, which I do not count as a modal verb)
- **åre** = to want

There are 2 main ways to use these verbs in a sentence:

1) They can be a separate word. In that case, it is best to place them just before the object (if we follow the syntax in Chapter 9, which is not obligatory anyway) or just before the „main"

[24] I use the term „affix" deliberately because „ę" can be both a suffix and a prefix.

verb, which always has an infinitive form. Example: *Gk 3al-vă* or *Gk vă 3alì* (I have to buy a carpet) (vă = to buy; 3al = a carpet).

2) They can be combined into one word. This can be done in 2 ways:
   I. Put the modal verb before the main verb, and remove the space between them.: 3al-gkvă {3alì gekìvă}.
   II. Construct a new verb in the following way: insert the „internal form" of a given modal verb between the root of the main verb and the infinitive ending. Their list is in the table beside.
   So as you can see, we can't apply this method only to the verbs hě and åre.
   Example verb created this way:
   vă + gě -> vảge (to have to buy)
   Depending on the main/base verb and the internal form of the modal verb, we may end up with a verb from group A ~~(if we use a reflexive verb).~~
   Example: 3al-vảgk {3alì vảgìk}.

Modal verb	Internal form
gě	-hg-
hě	-
tě	-ht-
glě	-hl-
kě	-hk-
ịbe	-hb-
åre	-

Compound pronouns

Inspired by Lojban, I decided to create "compound pronouns", i.e. those that can be used to further specify one's statement, e.g. regarding the performers of a given action. Possessive pronouns can be created from them and they can be the conjugation ending of verbs. That is why I placed them in the chapter on verbs, not pronouns. Examples:

- Kìd (when using in conjugation we will use the ending -kd {-kìd}) – we (only you and me), similarly:
  - dị̉ (in conjugation: -dh/-dị̉) – you (plural) (you and he/she),
  - dìḱ {dìḱ} – we and you (singular).

  Note: if the plural form is duplicated, we add ì: kìd́ – we and you, dȉì – you and they

- Kɜĩ – we all (analogously: dɜĩ - you all)
- Ḱdl̀ – we but not you

Interesting fact: the pronouns k and d in the direct object form can be attached to the conjugated form of the verb, e.g.: Lakdì[25] = D-lak (I see you). On the other hand, Lakd {lakìd} = we (I and you) see. Therefore, the sentence "I love you" can be written as "D-ṡk" {dì ṡek} or "Ṡkdì" {ṡegdì}. Other interesting examples:

- Lakd́l̀ – we (but not you (singular)) see
- Lakd́dȉl̀ – we (but not you (plural)) see

8. Parts of speech derived from verbs

Gerund

As we know very well, it is a noun formed from a verb. It can be formed by adding the letter „u" to the infinitive. Such an ending may (but does not have to) disappear in declension or when adding

[25] In such cases, I allow the -kdì ending to be read as {gdì} for convenience.

any affixes, but it does not disappear in the nominative plural[26]. You can also form this part of speech by subtracting the infinitive ending „e"[27], but only after making sure that the verb does not belong to group 2 and that the root thus formed has no other meaning. For example, „ale" means „to stand", but „Al" already means „fish". In the case of group 2 verbs, you can only change the endings -es and -ěs to -ęs and -eęs/-ěus, respectively.

In the case of group 1A and 3 verbs, a noun can also be created by adding the suffix -ų' to the verb root.

There is also the possibility of using two methods at the same time – depending on the noun to be created. For example, from the verb sabe (=to decide) you can create the word Sabę (=deciding, making a decision) and Sabũ (=a decision). In simpler terms, using the endings -ę, -ęs, -eęs/-ěus, -ų' works the same way as adding the ending -ing in English.

Participles

These are adjectives derived from verbs. As in Esperanto, participles are divided into passive and active and according to the tense: present, past, future. The table below presents all the endings that can be added to the root to create a given participle.

tense	EO	Kaël		EO	Kaël	
		gr. 1, 3	gr. 2		gr. 1, 3	gr. 2
	Active participle			Passive participle		
present	-anta	-ḟa	-ƒa	-ata	-va	-ya
past	-inta	-iḟa	-iƒa	-ita	-iva	-iya
future	-onta	-oḟa	-oƒa	-ota	-ova	-oya

Interesting fact: similarly to verbs, when negating participles, you can also use just the letter -e- between the root and the selected ending from the table below.

To better illustrate how they are created, below I present all possible adjectival participles created from the verbs: ite, ĉě, jăs and eze with translations:

tense		ite	to throw	ĉě	to do	jăs	to play / to amuse oneself	eze	to watch
present	Active Participle	itḟa	thrower	ĉeḟa	doing	jaƒa	playing	ezḟa	watching
	Passive Participle	itva	thrown (right now)	ĉeva	done (right now)	jaya	amused (right now) by himself	ezva	Watched (right now)
past	Active Participle	ìtḟa	one who threw	ĉéḟa	the one who did	jáƒa	one who was playing	èzḟa	one who watched
	Passive Participle	ìtva	thrown	ĉéva	done	jáya	amused by himself	èzva	watched
future	Active Participle	itoḟa	one who will throw	ĉêḟa	the one who will do	jâƒa	one who will play	ezoḟa	one who will watch
	Passive Participle	itova	one who will be thrown	ĉêva	the one who will be done	jâya	one who will play himself	ezova	one who will be watched

The above table shows only adjectival participles, but remember that both Kaël and Esperanto also distinguish adverbial participles, e.g.: ĉeḟo – *while doing* or ĉéḟo – *after doing*.

[26] Because then we would have an interrogative form of the root word, and very often it can be a completely different word.
[27] In the case of group 3 verbs, let's not forget that the root is the inflected form of the verb. Therefore, the ending -e should be replaced with the ending -ũ.

It is also worth mentioning that the verb lă has an irregular past passive participle – instead of „láva" it is „ly". This is of course due to the fact that the analogous form of this verb in French is „vu" – it is therefore two-letter.

9. Word order in a sentence. Punctuation

Word order in a sentence

In order to ensure that I and other users can use the language comfortably, I decided not to invent rigid rules regarding the sequence in which the subject, predicate and object should follow each other. However, when testing basic sentences in Kaël with just the verb „to be", I noticed that the most aesthetically pleasing sentences look like those where the verb lands after the object, and it is best if a dash is inserted between them. It has absolutely no function there, apart from decorative. Therefore, I do not require users to use it. To illustrate my reasoning, I show two sentences below, with different word sequences:

Él ỉ usa. (A paper clip is gray.)	Ala ŕ {rẻ} Aĉì (Ala has a cat.)
Usa Él ỉ.	Aĉi̯la ŕ.
Í Él usa.	Ŕ Alą̊ĉì.
Usa-ỉ Él.	Aĉì ŕ Ala.
	Aĉ-ŕ Ala.
Él usa-ỉ.	Alą̊ĉì ŕ.
	Alą̊ĉ-ŕ.

Surely everyone was surprised when reading the above examples why the letter ì disappeared in the sentences: „Aĉ-ŕ Ala" and „Alą̊ĉ-ŕ". I simply noticed that if I use a verb that forces the use of an accusative complement (in the same way that using the word „insist" in English forces the use of the preposition „on" and a verb ending in „-ing", e.g. *The teachers **insist** him on doing homework*), it does not need to be written down, since there is a dash and a verb after it - then we know that the word must be in the accusative case, so ì is unnecessary - of course, provided that we do not omit the use of the dash, which informs us exactly where the subject is and where the direct object is (and believe me, with a free sentence order and a lack of words in the accusative case, one could get lost in this). Due to its useful function, I encourage you to use it. Of course, if there are more than 1 objects, the letter ì can be omitted only with the last one - and with the one directly before the verb, as in the sentences below:

- Ala Kù i̯ĉ-ŕ. {Ala Kù i Aĉì rẻ} (Ala has a dog and a cat)
- Alą̊ĉi̯ Ku-ŕ. {Ala Aĉì i Kù rẻ} (Ala has a cat and a dog)

Here, only the last of the listed objects has been deprived of the accusative ending – of course, only in writing, not in pronunciation. Let's look at such examples: Kų̊ĉ-Alàz-ả / Kų̊làz-Aĉ-ả (The dog gives the cat to Ala). Kùz-Ì̀p-itu. (Throw the dog a stick.) – Here we can see that a third word can be added to this „hyphen pair" - one with the ending „-z", which creates the equivalent of dative case (we remember, of course, that personal pronouns have an irregular form after adding this ending). As we know, also here the hyphen serves a decorative function, and at the same time makes (in my subjective opinion) the text more convenient to read.

To sum up, there is no single correct word order in Kaël, but I have noticed that it is best for the sentence to have the following order:

- **Subject** – ideally somewhere at the beginning of the sentence
- **Predicate** – I have already explained in detail why it would be best if it were **right after the object.**

- **The rest of the sentence** (e.g. description of the time or place of the discussed events[28]) – in any part of the sentence, as long as it is not between the object and the verb

This can therefore be illustrated with the following diagram:

Subject + rest of the sentence + object-predicate + rest of the sentence

The specificity of subordinate clauses

I will not focus here on basic conjunctions, such as i (=and), de (=but), re (=so), ɜe (=because), etc., which separate the clauses of complex sentences in a coordinate or subordinate manner. They do not deserve much attention, because they have their equivalents in almost every natural language. I will therefore prefer to focus on the following conjunctions: u, j, ĵ, ī, because they cannot be easily translated into English.

J / J́

These conjunctions open the description of the object being talked about. It can be translated as *which* or *so that*. For example, the sentence: *I see a cow that is eating grass.* can be translated as:

- Tę̃-lak j F́-ẽh. It literally means: *I see a cow so that it is eating grass.*
- Tę̃-lak j́ F́-ẽh. Here the meaning is similar, with the difference that in this case the cow described is distinguished by the fact that it eats grass. This detail is therefore important for the speaker, since he used the conjunction j́, not j. In the previous sentence, on the other hand, this fact is nothing extraordinary for the speaker – it simply eats grass, like the other cows he has the opportunity to observe.

Let's take a closer look at the following sentence: Tę̃ j́ fka-ỉ ko F́-ẽh. *A cow „so that" is black eats grass*. The new thing here is the word „ko" - it indicates where a subordinate clause started by j/ĵ ends. I know that in natural languages such words are not used, so I do not require them in Kaël either (especially since its existence contradicts the basic idea of this language), I was simply so fascinated by the existence of such words in Lojban that I decided to introduce it here. However, when omitting this word, a comma should be inserted, showing that a subordinate clause ends, and we return to the superordinate clause. The above sentence could therefore sound as: Tę̃ j́ fka-ỉ, F́-ẽh. Another example: Tę̃ j F́-ẽh ko ĺû k-laẻ. = *The cow that is eating grass certainly doesn't see me*.

U

This is a universal word that starts a subordinate clause if j/j́ do not fit. This can be used to express that a fact/event/thought is, for example, the subject or object of the action being performed. It's equivalent in English is „that", though so often it's just ommited[29]. Examples:

- The fact that I am sick makes me very nervous – U ɣê-ik k̇e ån k-ĥìt̉.
- Sleeping makes you healthy – U nud k̉ët̉ ù exa̋d. / U nud k̉ët̉ è exa̋d.

[28] The rest of the sentence can also consist of some adverbs or adjectives, provided that the adjectives are placed just before the noun they describe.

[29] I know that the introduction of this rule in Kaël would make texts written in this conlang even more compressed, but I do not allow such an omitting, because in my opinion then Kaël would be even more difficult to learn, and especially to receive information (both oral and written)

As you can see, this word also has its own „terminator", as it is nicely called in lojbanic slang – it is the word ķe.

- I see you play volleyball well – Lak ù î U̇r̂-gad {U̇r̂ì gad}. / U-lak {ù lak} î Ur̂-gad. / Lakù î U̇r̂-gad. / Lakè î Ur̂-gad. / E-lak {è lak} î U̇r̂-gad.

Here the entire subordinate clause is the subject of the action performed (which is seeing), so the accusative ending must go to the word that begins it, i.e. to „u".

By the way, you can also see that sometimes you can use the word „e" (=this) instead of „u". It's like saying in English: *I see it: you play volleyball well.* You can also see that I like to attach these words to the verb of the superordinate clause - to make pronunciation easier.

Ī

This is a universal conjunction that can separate individual parts of coordinate sentences, especially when it comes to the resultant coordinate sentence. It can replace both the word re (=so) and ɜe (=because). It has no specific meaning. It simply shows that two events have some causal connection (or have anything in common at all), but it is not known whether event A is the effect or the cause of event B or vice versa. The derivative of this conjunction is the verb īe, which means: to have sth in common with sth.

Abbreviations

Even though the words themselves are very short, I thought it wouldn't hurt to create abbreviations for some of the words, analogous to those used in natural languages.

abbre-viation	Expanded abbreviation	English equivalent
p.	p̈ê	e.g.
id.[30]	ĭđ dop	etc.[31]
iṡ.	i èz ṡôi	etc.[32]

Interpunction

Due to the basic idea of conlang I don't attach much importance to this, so I won't describe in detail the rules regarding when to put a period or a comma. Nevertheless, I would like to present at least the basic rules:

- Period – only at the end of a sentence and ending abbreviations
- Comma – between words that have the same function in a sentence, if there is no conjunction „and" between them, and between parts of a complex sentence that is coordinated or subordinate, if there are no conjunctions
- Colon – can be used, but does not have to be used, after the words: u, e (when starting a subordinate clause). Its use is completely optional

[30] Due to the shortness of words, I know perfectly well that by shortening words we can create a completely different word, which is why the use of a period is so important here. Therefore, if a sentence ends with an abbreviation, then 2 dots must appear: one ends the abbreviation, and the other ends the sentence.
[31] and so on, and so forth, and others, and more, and the like
[32] „I èz ṡôi" literally means „And similars to it."

10. Word formation, diminutives & augmentatives

Derivational and prepositional affixes

Following the example of Esperanto, I created affixes, which are elements that can be added to a word to create a new word (there are plenty of examples in the table below)[33]. Affixes are divided into prefixes and suffixes. For the sake of distinction, in the table below, prefixes end with a hyphen, while suffixes have a hyphen at the beginning. Among affixes, I distinguish a special group, which is formed by prepositions, because this part of speech always appears as a separate word in Esperanto, as well as in most (if not all) Indo-European languages. In other languages (e.g. Hungarian, Finnish, Japanese), prepositions can only be suffixes. Hence, in Kaël, prepositions can be used both as separate words or as affixes – it is up to the user to decide which form to use. This rule also applies to all other affixes, of course. Finally, it is worth remembering that if we use any suffix starting with a consonant, adding it to a word ending with a vowel or a consonant *combined with -i* (including „ɫ" or „x̌"), we should add the letter ì before the suffix. This rule does not apply to the suffix -ʄ/-ć, because when it is added to adjectives, it is added to whole words, not to roots ~~as is the case in Esperanto~~.

Word-formation affixes (37)

As in Esperanto, almost any of these affixes can exist as a single word here too. I have placed them in the „wordly" column because their formation is not always regular.

affix	wordly	meaning	examples
-ăt	Et	thing	Iăt – something good
ąŝ-	-	Pra-	-
-ĉ	ĉu'	member (of something)	Ĥŕstĉ - a Christian
-č	ìč	fragment, particle	Śu̯ìč – a grain of sand
-ce[34]	ìce	to become something	-
-ć/-ʄ	ć / ʄ	feature	Îć - goodness, isaʄ - magnitude
-đ	đ	(set/group)	Eɜđ – a group of people/crowd
đe-	-	sth of both sexes	đěɜ́ – people (different genders)
-ŕr	Ŕr	forms masculine gender	Ĺu – a horse, Lu̇̀fl – a stallion
fu-	-	indicates the division / separation of something	fùte – to separate, fuă - to distribute
-ḟu	ḟu	A chief, boss, superior	Tûtḟu – a director of production
-gê	gê	necessary to do	ĉègê = gê ĉě - necessary to do, olgê – necessary to read
í̥-/-í̥e	Í̥, ĺ̥e/ ìĭ	End of sth	ole – to read, í̥ole – to finish reading
-is/-ṣ	ṣě	general suffix (as in EO, it helps in the formation of verbs from nouns)	
-j	ìj	tool	Irj – a writing tool
-ɲ/-eɜ	Ɲ/Eɜ	person	Ftàɲ / Ftăɜ – young person
-ń	Ń	forms feminine gender	Ĺu – a forse, Ĺùń – a mare
-pû	pû	inclined, accustomed	Nùpû - sleepy
-q	-	-ist (profession)	Ávq – a pharmacist[35] (Áv – a medicament)

[33] If anyone would like to compare these affixes with those in Esperanto, I invite you to familiarize yourself with the Esperanto version of this manual. It is for learning Kaël, not Esperanto, so I do not include them in other language versions.
[34] You can use the endings -ce and -tes interchangeably, depending on which type of conjugation you would like to use.
[35] Do not confuse with Âĝ - doctor

-ŕ	ìŕ	child, offspring	Kùŕ – a puppy / a whelp
-ṙ	ìṙ	container	Pùṙ – a wallet
-ŕ	ìŕa	increasing	Isàŕ - large (isa - big)
ro-	rô	incorrectly, improperly	Rotŭ – to know wrong / to be wrong
-s	sû	contempt, disgust (especially aesthetic)	Ȧzs – nasty house
~~**-ŝ**~~	~~zo~~	~~long-term activity~~	~~Klàŝ - singing (klă - to sing)~~
-ŝu'	-	-ism	Ĥŕsţu - Christianism
su-/so-	-	[together]	sùte / sòte – to connect
-ś/-ṕ	śa / ṕa	Decrease	Isàṕ – a bit big
ta-	tă, Ta	beginning, to begin	tală - to start seeing
-ťa	ťa	possible	tãìťa=possible to be learnt, ẽìťa=edible[36]
-te	ìte	To give something some form	Ĥî - nervous, Ĥìte - to irritate
-v̄	V̄	A place	Ávèv̄ - health clinic, health center
ve-	vê	(opposite)	véa = rô (bad)
vo-	Vŏз/Voăt	ex-…	Vojvu – ex-husband
vś-	vśo	again, back	vśă - to return, to give back
-ẓ	ẓ	contempt, disgust (especially moral)	Ȧzẓ – a brothel (Ȧz – a house)
-за/u	ìза/ìзą/ìзă	worthy, worthwhile	Tãìза – worth learning

Prepositions (35)

afix	wordly	meaning
-z	z	to / towards
-u̇	u̇	instead of
-ǹl	ǹl	in front of
-ý	ý	next to
-ņ	ņ	at
-nõ	nõ	around
-ĺ	*ål*	*while*
-t	t	with, from
-p	p	in
-b	b	into
-ul / -İu	lũ	outside
-ós	ós	away
-ve	ve	between, among
-vèb	vèb	inbetween
-ɠ	ɠ	(general preposition)
-þ	þ	against
-þo	þo	on the contrary; opposite
-bå	bå	apart from
-v	v	with
-st	st	according to
-ìn	*ìn*	*behind*

[36] The ending -ťa therefore means that something can be done. In turn, when we want to say about someone that they are able to do something (but not necessarily that they are inclined to do something), we use the ending -hta, e.g. klȧta = able to be sung (klă = to sing), and klȧťa means "possible to sing/to be sung"

-eć	eć	despite
-ť	ť	than
-ų	ų	through, by means of
-ŗ	ŗ	for, in order to
-ḍ	ḍ	after, beyond, then
-r	r	at
-ɜ	ɜ	because of
-ḱl	ḱl	without
-l	l	under
-ĺ	lʾ	below
-ǹt	ǹt	above, over
-ǹ	ǹ	on
-ǹb	ǹb	onto
-ťå	ťå	through

The use of prepositions seems very intuitive to me, just like in natural languages, but I would like to draw attention to some elements:

- I think it's worth distinguishing between the prepositions "z" and "b". The first one is used to indicate the direction in which a person/object is moving, but it doesn't have to indicate the final destination of the object's roam. The preposition "b" always indicates a specific place to/into which a person/object is striving.
- the preposition "z" when added to personal (informal) pronouns is shortened to single-letter forms, shown in the table below. This contraction is only obligatory in the case of the 2nd singular form, because otherwise we will get the word ḍ, which is a completely different word, and in addition it is also a preposition

Personal pronoun	
Before adding „z"	After adding „z"
k	x̂
d	ḍ
h	ḫ
ḱ	x̌
d́	ḍi
i̇	ḫi

- the preposition "ų" can only be used to indicate a tool that was used to perform a given action. If we put it next to the name of a person, it means that this person was a tool to do something, but is not necessarily the author of it. For example, the sentence "The picture was painted by L. da Vinci" should be "Ḱp ţíva-i̇ t L. da Vinci" - so we are talking here about the fact that this painting is "from" the painter, not by using him/her. The sentence "Ḱp ţíva-i̇ ų L. da Vinci" would mean that it is not L. da Vinci who is its author, but someone else for whom da Vinci is only a tool needed to paint the picture. Such a sentence can be understood, for example, in such a way that the painter used his hair as a brush when painting the picture. It can also mean that the picture was painted with his blood, feces, or anything else you can imagine. I know, it sounds brutal, but if the user of this conlang wanted to express just such a thought (that a given person is not the author of something, but was only used as a tool to create such an object), they would have such an opportunity. Fortunately, in Polish, you can also maintain such unambiguity - using the construction "za pomocą" (it means something close to English "by the help of") instead of "przez" (= by), but the English "by" or the Portuguese "por" seem ambiguous to me in this situation.

Compound words

As in Hungarian, German, Esperanto or Lojban, here too you can, and sometimes even have to, combine several words to create one larger one. Depending on what part of speech they will eventually become, I distinguish compound nouns and compound verbs.

Compound nouns

In this way I named words composed of two combined nouns, where one of them had a genitive form before the combination. It is therefore a noun describing the other. Of course, there can also be a noun composed of three or more nouns - then the last „part" noun is described by all the previous ones, and these may or may not describe each other (this is not Lojban or Toki Pona - I do not require such precision). For example, let's look at the following formulations (from text no. 1 on page 15):

Compound noun	**Another possible record**	**Meaning**

Similarly, you can also combine words by attaching an adjective to a noun, but I am still wondering whether the adjective root itself should be attached (as in Esperanto) or maybe the whole adjective. Other interesting compound nouns:

Ѐklseg	Seg Ѐkln	Edge of the cliff
Vòlål	Ål Vòln	Valley floor

- Kuągõ – a kilogram of carrots. Kuą - a carrot, Gõ - a kilogram
- Ṫãẽìv̄ - student canteen. Ṫã is the root of the verb ṫãe (=to study). Ẽe means „to eat", and while v̄ is a suffix already known to us, indicating the place where a given activity is performed.

Finally, I would like to draw attention to the structure of compound nouns that have some kind of packaging as an element. Kal means „wine", Ąl - „beer", Plu - „bottle". So how do you say „a bottle of wine"? The first thought may be Kalplu, but it means that we are talking about a bottle that is in some way defined by wine - it may mean that we mean a bottle on which we will only have „wine" written, but whether there is actually wine there is another matter. It may also be a bottle that has a shape typical of wine bottles, although it does not contain it. Finally, here we may mean a bottle in which there is wine, or just its remains, or we only have memories that there used to be wine in this bottle. Therefore, it is better to say „Plukal" - it is known that we are talking about wine, and the prefix „plu" defines it, indicating more specifically that we mean bottled wine. Likewise, it is more reasonable to buy Pluąl than Ąlplu.

Compound verbs

Similarly, you can combine a verb with an adverb, e.g. ṡedŏ = to work manually (dŏ – to work, ṡe – hand)

Words of foreign origin in Kaël

Although the word order is very similar to Latin, I do not want this conlang to be similar to any Romance languages, or Germanic, Slavic, etc., because I am afraid that Kaël will then sound like a strange caricature of some language or group of languages (Zamenhof undoubtedly made this mistake when creating Esperanto, but I also understand his intention, which was to make it drastically easier to learn – unfortunately at the cost of its sound, which is too close to Romance languages). For this reason, I decided that even words that look almost identical in many languages will sound completely different in Kaël. Examples:

- mathematics – Tŭ, because it comes from the Greek μαθημα, meaning science, lesson, knowledge (=Tuę')
- geography – 3ajpŕ, meaning drawing the Earth (the Hungarians created this word in a similar way: földrajz, where föld – earth, rajz – drawing)
- astronomy – Ṫaů̊b, meaning „star law". From the Greek ἀστρον = star (=Ṫą), νόμος = rule, law (=Ů̊b)
- economics – Ȧzů̊b, because it comes from the Greek οἰκος = „house" and νόμος
- philosophy – Ṡéf̨, because it comes from the Greek φίλος – „loved, beloved" (=ṡéva) and σοφία – „wisdom" (=Iŝàf̨)
- cosmos – Rẽ, because κόσμος in Greek means „arrangement, order" (Rę̃)

As you can see, when creating these types of words I was guided by their etymology.

Diminutives and augmentatives

This is the element of the language that I pay the least attention to. I think that the methods of creating diminutives and embellishments will be developed only after using the language for a longer period of time, becoming an element of colloquial speech (and therefore never formal speech!) of the language. So far, there are few soft sounds in Kaël, so I will most likely create diminutives by changing one of the consonants to its emollient equivalent (e.g. „n" to „ń"). You can also use the suffix -ṕ, knowing that „ṕa" means „small". I can create augmentatives by pressing the letter ĥ inside the word, which I hardly ever use in words. Similarly, you can use the prefix šu-, knowing what it means as a single word, or the endings -s/-ʐ.

11. How to learn this???

Since there are no courses available, I recommend that you simply look for example sentences in any textbook for another language (preferably texts for learning Esperanto, since I based the grammar on it – but any other language textbook should also be sufficiently helpful) and simply translate these texts into Kaël, and then send them to me for checking at veknem211@gmail.com. I personally learned this language (and improved my vocabulary and tested the language) by translating readings from a manual of Portuguese, among others. Unfortunately, because their content is not my intellectual property (I did not compose these texts, I only translated them), I prefer not to publish these translations.

12. Optional alphabets

latin	cyrillic	greek	devanagari	IPA
a	a	Aɑ	अ	a
e	e/э[37]	Eɛ	ए	ɛ
i	i	Iɪ	इ/य	i/j
o	o	Oo	ओ	ɔ o
u	y	Yʊ	उ	u
ì ị i̥	ì	̀Ìì	इ̀	ɨ̆ ø̆
y	ы/ӹ	ʊ	ऊ	y
å	a□	Aͦɑͦ	अ॑	ɒ
ḗ	e ́	Ḗɛ̄	ऐ	eː
ỉ	ю	Φ̣φ̣	इ̣/यु	ju

Even though I use Latin script all the time when writing in this language, it is not the only script that can be used. In addition to Latin, you can write in Kael in Greek script, Cyrillic, and even Devanagari!!!

latin	cyrillic	greek	devanagari	IPA
b	Бб	Ββ	ब	b
c	Цц	Χχ	च	t͡s
ć	Ц́ц́	Χ́χ́	च़	t͡ɕ
ĉ	Чч	Χ̂χ̂	छ	t͡ʂ
d	Дд	Δδ	द	d
đ	Д̆д̆	Δ̆δ̆	द़	ɟ
f	Фф	Φφ	फ	f
g	Гг	Γγ	ग	g
ĝ	Ц̣ ц̣	Γ̂γ̂	ज	d͡ʐ
h	Хх	Ηη	ह	h
j	Жж	Φ̂φ̂	झ	ʐ
k	Кк	Κκ	क	k
l	Лл	Λλ	ल	l

[37] The letter „e" cannot be read according to the Russian pronunciation rules - the sound [jɛ] can only be written as ĭ, similarly [ja] - only as î (etc.), regardless of whether we use the Cyrillic or Latin script

I know, I haven't included all the letters here, because all you need to do is add the appropriate diacritic to the „non-Latin" letters, and you have any electronically will time, but will use For this reason, I appropriate letter. After all, no one writing copy the letters from these tables every their own keyboard and lexilogos instead. didn't even want to insert the letters s̀ or t̀ in Greek or Cyrillic, because we know what such letters will look like. The strangest case is with the Devanagari letters. Examples:

s	Cc	Σσ	स	s
ś	Ćć	Σ̔ό	स़	ɕ
ŝ	Шш	Σ̔ô	श	ʂ
t	Tт	Tт	त	t
T̆t' T́t́	T̆т́	T̆т́	त़	c
v	Bв	Ωω	व	v
x	K□κ□ ǯ	Ξξ	ख़/ष	ks
x́	ǯ	Ξ́ξ	ख़/ष़	kɕ
z	Зз	Zζ	ज	z
ź	З́з́	Ź́ζ	ज़	ʑ

ĺ	Л́л́	Λ́λ́	ऌ	ʎ/lʲi
з	Мм	Μμ	म	m
n	Нн	Nν	न	n
ń	Н́н́	Ńν́	ञ	ɲ
p	Пп	Πп	प	p
q	κ□	K̊k̊	क़	kf
r	Pp	Pρ	र	ɾ

- ग़म – ǵaзa (next)
- ष़िल् – XJ (a fog)
- केए – kě (to need)
- होांग् - Ĥôg (an army) (a very non-intuitive notation, but the only possible one)

Personally, I think that the most suitable script for Kaël is the Latin script. Its overwhelming advantage over other scripts is not only its universality, but also the presence of numerous letters that take up little space compared to their counterparts in other scripts, e.g. „t" is narrower than the Cyrillic т, Greek τ, or Hindu त. The letters i, f, j, l, r have a similar advantage, while the remaining ones are of medium width, compared to very wide letters, such as: ш, ж, ю, or ы. In addition, there are often problems with displaying letters of alphabets other than Latin after adding diacritics. That is why I write the sound [mh] as ӟ, because з̓or з̇ are not clearly displayed (I do not even put quotation marks, because it would cover these diacritic sentences). Therefore, even if I were Greek, Bulgarian, or even Hindu, I would certainly prefer to write only in the Latin script in Kaël. Well, maybe with the exception of the one discussed in the next chapter.

13. Alternative script

And now, Dear Reader, you have the opportunity to discover the darkest side of Kaël. You already know that when writing in this language you can use a huge number of Latin, Greek, Cyrillic, and even Devanagari letters. Now it's time to familiarize yourself with some terrifying information - you can write in this language even with East Asian letters - such as Korean, Chinese, and even Japanese. Both katakana, hiragana, and above all kanji characters have their use here. I deliberately did not even mention this writing system in the previous chapters, because if someone, having read about the Latin alphabet expanded to over 200 letters, saw some Chinese letters in the chapter with sample texts, they would certainly throw this book into a dark corner, wanting to forget about this conlang as soon as possible. **I absolutely do not require that users of Kaël know this script**. Just as in the Interslavic language we distinguish between Cyrillic and Latin script, so that each person can write in one or the other script (depending on how convenient it is for someone to write), so here I distinguish different scripts, including the alternative script.

Here, I was inspired by Japanese words, including: 大きい (big), 小さい (small). Anyone who knows Japanese knows that these words are made up of both hiragana letters (I'm talking about the endings -きい and -さい) and kanji characters (大, 小). I have no idea whether these words have roots and inflectional endings, but the existence of letters from different writing systems (because each of these words contains both kanji and hiragana letters) in one word inspired me to create a special script, where the roots of nouns, verbs, and other parts of speech will be written in Japanese/Chinese letters, and the inflectional endings will be written in Latin letters – the ones I wrote about in Chapter 1. Of course, if you want, you can use Cyrillic, Devanagari or Greek along with these East Asian letters if you don't like Latin script. In addition, you can also use Korean letters when writing some words in an alternative script.

For convenience, due to geographical reasons, **I call this alternative script the Eastern script**, while the other writing systems (Latin and those mentioned in the previous chapter) the Western script. However, the letters of the Eastern script cannot be used to write inflectional endings or words that I have not yet adapted to the Eastern script. That is why when using the Eastern script, you always have to use the „Western letters" as well. Such letters are also used when using the alternative script is not profitable from the point of view of the main idea of this conlang. For example, the verb „to write" is „ire" in the Western script and „書e" or „書어" in the Eastern script. The root 書 takes up more space than the root *ir*, which is why in handwriting I try to write the „Eastern letters" as narrowly as possible. I would have a problem with this letter, but it would be easier with the letter 日. The second disadvantage of the Eastern script is that all the „Eastern" letters are higher than the „Western" ones, which can be seen by the large distance that has appeared between the several lines of text above. What's more, if Eastern and Western letters are placed in one word, then an undeletable gap may appear which looks like a space. That's why I don't plan to use this script when writing on electronic devices, but I would do it by hand with pleasure. Here I can move on to the important advantage of the Eastern script for me - there are some Eastern letters that are simply much more convenient to write by hand than words written in the Western script. For example, instead of the word ĉå (=only) you can write 只. The letter 只 is so easy to write that it is much more convenient to write by hand than ĉå, which is also full of diacritics.

As I mentioned in the introduction, you can also use Korean letters. With them, it's easy enough to learn the elements that make up a given letter, and you can even improvise with their use. For those who don't know this script, I'll just mention that letters are made up of elements that are combined together to form one character, just like the name 한글 (i.e. hangul - the name of the Korean script) is made up of the elements: ㅎㅏㄴㄱㅡㄹ. The tables below show how these elements should be read in the alternative script:

Consonants:

b	ㅂ	v	ㅃ
d	ㄷ	đ	ㄸ
g	ㄱ	k	ㄲ
ĝ	ㅈ		

h	ㅎ	ĥ	ㅋ
j	ㅈ	ĉ	ㅉ
l	ㄹ		
ɜ	ㅁ		
n	ㄴ		
p	ㅍ		
s	ㅅ	ŝ	ㅆ
t	ㅌ		

The letter ㅇ placed at the beginning of a letter is silent (it allows you to write syllables that begin with a vowel), while when placed at the end – it shows that the vowel in the syllable is nasal. Vowels:

a	ㅏ	á	ㅐ	î	ㅑ
e	ㅓ	é	ㅔ	ǐ	ㅕ
i	ㅣ				
o	ㅗ	ó	ㅚ	î	ㅛ
u	ㅜ	ú	ㅟ	o̊	ㅠ
ì	ㅡ	í̥	ㅢ		

iá	ㅒ
ié	ㅖ

ô	ㅘ	ôi	ㅙ
ǔ	ㅝ	ǔi	ㅞ

Examples:
미 - ɜ́ – what
텰 - T̀et – a task
꽈 - kô – easy
퉈 - tǔ – to know
용 - Iõ – a nose

Since Kaël's phonology is far from Korean, please don't be surprised that I gave many Korean letters a completely different sound than the way Koreans read them. Similarly, in languages using the Latin script, the letters j, e, r, w, a are read differently, depending on the language we speak (for example, the letter j is read completely differently in Polish, Spanish, English, or Portuguese).

Korean letters, which are part of the Eastern script, are mainly used to write, for example, conjunctions or other words that consist of such Western letters that have their Korean equivalent. For example, below is the conjugation of the verbs 머어/머e (ɜě - to go) and 모어/모e (ɜǒ - to speak) in the Korean script.

I really appreciate it because it can be used to write inflectional endings of verbs, for example – which can be seen in the table beside.

1s.	먺		몪	
2s.	먿		몯	
3s.	멓		뫃	
1pl.	머끼	먺i	모끼	몪i
2pl.	머디	먿i	모디	몯i
3pl.	머히	멓i	모히	뫃i

Of course, it should be remembered that when using the Eastern script, it is possible to use both Japanese/Chinese and Korean letters in the same text. In the case of the Western script, this would be problematic, as the letters *p* and *ɜ* are read differently in the Latin script than in the Cyrillic script.

Given that the alternative script is unfortunately not very practical, please treat this chapter more as a curiosity. However, I still consider the Eastern script to be an interesting artistic element of this conlang.

I am perfectly aware that the very desire to learn this language is a crazy idea, let alone wanting to learn to write in this Eastern script. That is why I invite people interested in the script to contact me.

14. About the author (Ĭlfŕ)

A pharmacy student who has been interested in foreign languages (especially theoretically) for a dozen or so years. I speak Esperanto, Interslavic, Portuguese and English, and I have also had the opportunity to learn a bit of Hungarian, French, Dutch, Lojban, Toki Pona, and to a much lesser extent Ithkuil. In addition, I have been experimenting with the spelling of Polish for several years, writing in this language using such scripts as Greek, Cyrillic, Hebrew, Arabic, and even Hangul. Reading this textbook, you can certainly see that their knowledge (to varying degrees) contributed to the current appearance of this artificial language, which I consider extremely practical.

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